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ART. I.—*Ornithological Biography, or an Account of the Habits of the Birds of the United States of America, accompanied by Descriptions of the Objects represented in the Work entitled "The Birds of America," and interspersed with Delineations of American Scenery and Manners.* By JOHN JAMES AUDUBON, F. R. SS. L. and E., &c. Philadelphia. Judah Dobson, Agent. 1831. 8vo. pp. 512.

THIS work is preceded by an Introductory Address to the reader, in which the author with great simplicity gives some account of his life, chiefly as connected with his favorite pursuit. The auto-biographical sketch answers all the purpose of procuring the reader's favor and good will, but disappoints his curiosity in regard to a few particulars of time and place. For the information of his readers on the other side of the Atlantic, where his book was first published, Mr. Audubon says that he was born in the New World; but does not inform them in what part of this wide New World, or at what time the event happened. His earliest recollections under paternal guidance and instruction were associated with the productions of nature. "My father," he says, "generally accompanied my steps, procured birds and flowers for me with great eagerness, pointed out the elegant movements of the former, the beauty and softness of their plumage, the manifestations of their pleasure or sense of danger, . . . . spoke of their departure and return with the seasons, their haunts, and, more wonderful than all, their change of livery; thus exciting me to study them, and to raise my mind towards their great Creator."

A deep moral impression from these early associations, a constant recognition of an intelligent Creator and a beneficent design in the organization of plants and flowers, and in the mechanism and habits of birds and various animals, are alike noticeable and engaging in this ardent naturalist, who, in his toils and difficulties and dangers, was sustained, relieved, and rescued by that superintending Providence in which he cheerfully confided. Thus it is that his religious feelings do not burst forth merely in fits of admiration, but abide with him in his whole career. When at a certain time his money, necessary for his small travelling expenses, was stolen from him, and he was almost worn out with the fatigues of his peregrinations, he thanks God that he "has never despaired, while rambling thus for the sole purpose of admiring his grand and beautiful works." This devout spirit breaks out in words alike free from affectation and from shame. And on one occasion, when he sat down to sup, at an inn, with strangers, "every individual," he says, "looking upon me as a Missionary priest, on account of my hair, which in those days flowed loosely on my shoulders, I was asked to say grace, which I did with a fervent spirit." \*

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\* This allusion of the "American Woodsman," as the author styles himself, to his personal appearance, calls up our recollection of a description given of him in Blackwood's Magazine for July last. "When some five years ago we first set eyes on him in a party of literati in 'stately Edinborough throned on crags,' he was such an American woodsman as took the shine out of us modern Athenians. Though dressed, of course, somewhat after the fashion of ourselves, his long raven locks hung curling over his shoulders yet unshorn from the wilderness. They were shaded across his open forehead with a simple elegance, such as a civilized Christian might be supposed to give his 'fell of hair,' when practising 'every man his own perruquier,' in some liquid mirror in the forest glade, employing, perhaps, for a comb, the claw of the Bald Eagle. His sallow, fine-featured face bespoke a sort of wild independence, and then such an eye—keen as that of the falcon! His foreign accent and broken English speech—for he is of French descent—removed him still farther out of the commonplace circle of this every-day world of ours; and his whole demeanor—it might be with us partly imagination—was colored to our thought by a character of conscious freedom and dignity, which he had habitually acquired in his long and lonely wanderings among the woods, where he had lived in the unaccompanied love and delight of Nature, and in the studious observation of all the ways of her winged children, that for ever fluttered over his paths, and roosted on the tree at whose feet he lay at night, beholding them still the sole images that haunted his dreams. All this we admit must have had over it a

His fondness for the works of nature did not abate as he advanced towards manhood. He coveted every thing he saw, particularly of the feathered tribe; but "the moment a bird was dead, however beautiful it had been when in life, the pleasure became blunted;" since, after all attempts to preserve it in perfection, "it could no longer be said to be fresh from the hands of its Maker." As the best substitute for living specimens his father furnished him with *Illustrations*, which delighting but not satisfying the cravings of his appetite, "gave him a desire to copy nature." His first unavailing attempts at imitation produced vexation and disgust, but not despair. At the age of seventeen, after having been some time in France for acquiring the rudiments of education, and having become skilled in drawing under the instruction of David, he returned to this country, to the woods of the New World, with fresh ardor, and commenced and continued a collection of drawings under the title of "The Birds of America."\* His first rambles were in the neighbourhood of his "plantation" in Pennsylvania, bordering on the Schuylkill, which was given him by his father. And though it was his greatest delight to listen to the songsters of the grove, and bear home his "feathered prize," yet ere long his ear was ravished by sweeter notes, and he graced his home with a richer prize, another self. He found all attempts in the way of business, which he seems to have entered upon, in obedience to the expectations of friends, and from a sense of what was due to his new domestic relation, altogether fruitless; so that at length, "breaking through all bonds,"

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strong tincture of imagination; for we had been told of his wandering life and his wonderful pencil; but the entire appearance of the man was most appropriate to what had for so many years been his calling, and bore upon it, not to be mistaken for a moment or overlooked, the impress, not of singularity, but of originality; in one word, of genius—self-nursed, self-ripened, and self-tutored among the inexhaustible treasures of the Forest, on which, in one soul-engrossing pursuit, it had lavished its dearest and divinest passion. Nor will this language sound extravagant to those who know Audubon, and that the man is never for an hour distinct, in his being, from the *Ornithologist*.—*Blackwood's Magazine*. No. 182, pp. 11, 12.

\* The engravings of the first hundred of these drawings were mentioned in the preceding number of this Review, in a note to the review of Nuttall's "Ornithology." Three additional volumes of the same size, it is expected, will complete the work.

he roamed through woods and wilds, over lakes and prairies, peopled and desert portions of the land, from a disinterested love of his pursuit, not dreaming of its final results; till at length with a collection very extensive and his drawings completed, the thought possessed him that he might again visit Europe, and possibly publish his Illustrations.

He embarked for Liverpool, if we have computed the time rightly, in the latter part of the year 1825. But how long previously to this he met with a misfortune which well nigh proved fatal to his hopes and his labors in ornithology, we cannot make out, for there is a singular disregard to dates and chronological order in his narrative. The fact, however, to which we allude is sufficiently remarkable to be stated; and we give it in his own words.

"I left the village of Henderson, in Kentucky, situated on the banks of the Ohio, where I resided for several years, to proceed to Philadelphia on business. I looked to all my drawings before my departure, placed them carefully in a wooden box, and gave them in charge to a relative, with injunctions to see that no injury should happen to them. My absence was of several months; and when I returned, after having enjoyed the pleasures of home for a few days, I inquired after my box, and what I was pleased to call my treasure. The box was produced and opened; but, reader, feel for me — a pair of Norway rats had taken possession of the whole, and had reared a young family among the gnawed bits of paper, which but a few months before represented nearly a thousand inhabitants of the air! The burning heat which instantly rushed through my brain was too great to be endured without affecting the whole of my nervous system. I slept not for several nights, and the days past like days of oblivion, — until the animal powers being recalled into action, through the strength of my constitution, I took up my gun, my note-book, and my pencils, and went forth to the woods as gaily as if nothing had happened. I felt pleased that I could make better drawings than before, and ere a period not exceeding three years had elapsed, I had my portfolio filled again. — *Introductory Address*, pp. 13, 14.

We cannot stop to give a detailed account of the author's transition from a feeling of loneliness and despondency, as he approached the shores of Britain (for the sake of accomplishing his great object, the publication of his Illustrations), to his complete relief by the encouraging and triumphant reception which he met from distinguished individuals and

learned societies in Liverpool and Manchester and Edinburgh, and by the speedy commencement of his vast work, now so far advanced. We conclude, therefore, this notice of his Introductory Address, with the close of the Address itself (than which nothing could be more suited to disarm all criticism), in which he says of the critic,—“Ever since I have known that such a person as himself exists, I have labored harder, with more patience and more care, to gain his good will, indulgence, and support.”

Though Mr. Audubon introduces himself to his reader, and opens himself with great simplicity and frankness in his preliminary address, yet we become more intimately acquainted with him as we accompany him in his rambles amidst the varied scenery he meets, and in his uninterrupted converse with animated nature; and are delighted to find that his companionship with the fowl of heaven, lessens in no degree his kindly feelings to his own species. But we must hasten to take a brief notice of the body of the work.

The volume before us contains an account of one hundred birds, answering to the first hundred of the author's “Illustrations.” The technical descriptions, though sufficiently full and exact, and more so than we might expect from one who speaks with little reverence of *system-makers*, form but a small part of the book. The greater part consists of what answers well to its title. It is a biography of birds; and the biographer tells us only what he has witnessed; or if he mentions any thing else, it is mentioned as that for which he does not vouch, or as an error which he is prepared to correct. It is impossible to go along with him without being fully persuaded that we are listening to the truth. He does not spend his breath in cunningly devised fables or theories to account for what is inexplicable, or beyond the ken of the observer,—such as the disappearance and return of certain species of birds,—and why one species for ever abandons its nest after the production of a single brood, and another comes back to the same nest as to a home for successive years;—he relates only what his own observation has taught him upon these matters. There is something inexpressibly delightful, whatever deductions we may make on account of the author's enthusiasm, in his pictures of the moral qualities, if we may so speak, of his winged associates. He draws familiarly their characters, whether social or solitary, affectionate

or quarrelsome, timid or bold, mild or ferocious, modest or vain, not overlooking their varieties and peculiarities of countenance. With the same particularity he describes their attitudes and motions, their manner of flying, the insects on which they revel, and their modes of procuring them. It is, indeed, surprising to find how many things of this sort are perceived by minute attention, which are passed unnoticed by the common observer.

We must content ourselves with a very few extracts containing partial descriptions of different birds. We know, indeed, where to begin, namely, at the beginning; but we know not where to end, and must therefore measure our quotations by a given number of pages.

The *Wild Turkey* (*Meleagris Gallopavo*, Linn.) is found in the Southern and Western States, and is rarely seen eastward of Pennsylvania. The migrations of this species of birds are for the most part performed on foot. When they come to a river they proceed as follows :

"They betake themselves to the highest eminences, and there often remain a whole day, and sometimes two, as if for the purpose of consultation. During this time the males are heard gobbling, calling, and making much ado, and are seen strutting about as if to raise their courage to a pitch befitting the emergency. Even the females and young assume something of the same pompous demeanor, spread out their tails, and run round each other, purring loudly and performing extravagant leaps. At length, when the weather appears settled, and all around is quiet, the whole party mounts the top of the highest trees, whence, at a signal, consisting of a single cluck, given by a leader, the flock takes flight for the opposite shore. The old and fat birds easily get over, even should the river be a mile in breadth; but the younger and less robust frequently fall into the water,—not to be drowned, however, as might be imagined. They bring their wings close to the body, spread out their tail as a support, stretch forward their neck, and striking out their legs with great vigor, proceed rapidly towards the shore; on approaching which, should they find it too steep for landing, they cease their exertions for a few moments, float down the stream till they come to an accessible part, and by a violent effort generally extricate themselves from the water. It is remarkable, that immediately after thus crossing a large stream, they ramble about for some time, as if bewildered. In this state they fall an easy prey to the hunter." pp. 2, 3.

The manner in which they escape the assault of the Owl is thus described.

"As Turkeys usually roost in flocks, on naked branches of trees, they are easily discovered by their enemies, the Owls, which, on silent wing approach and hover around them for the purpose of reconnoitring. This, however, is rarely done without being discovered, and a single *cluck* from one of the Turkeys announces to the whole party the approach of the murderer. They instantly start upon their legs, and watch the motions of the Owl, which selecting one as its victim, comes down upon it like an arrow, and would inevitably secure the Turkey, did not the latter at that moment, lower its head, stoop, and spread its tail in an inverted manner over its back, by which action the aggressor is met by a smooth inclined plane, along which it glances without hurting the Turkey; immediately after which the latter drops to the ground, and thus escapes merely with the loss of a few feathers." pp. 8, 9.

An interesting story is told in the author's account of the Wild Turkey, of one which he reared almost from the egg. And though it became so tame as to associate freely with the domestic turkeys and to follow any person calling, it always roosted by itself, on the roof of the house, and took frequent excursions to the neighbouring woods, whence it returned before night-fall. But after a while it extended its liberty, and having been absent several days was thus recognised by the owner.

"I was going towards some lakes to shoot, when, having walked about five miles, I saw a fine large gobbler cross the path before me. Turkeys being then in prime condition for the table, I ordered my dog to chase it, and put it up. The animal went off with great rapidity, and as it approached the Turkey, I saw with great surprise, that the latter paid little attention. Juno was on the point of seizing it, when she suddenly stopped and turned her head towards me, I hastened to them, but you may easily conceive my surprise, when I saw my own favorite bird, and discovered that it had recognised the dog, and would not fly from it; although the sight of a strange dog would have caused it to run off at once. Pray, reader, by what word will you designate the recognition made by my favorite Turkey, of a dog which had been long associated with it in the yards and grounds? Was it the result of instinct or of reason,—an unconsciously revived impression, or the act of an intelligent mind?" p. 14.

The *Purple Martin* is distinguished for its courage, and for its enmity to cats, dogs, and other quadrupeds, as well as to every kind of Hawk, Crow, and Vulture, and to the Eagle, all of which fowls the birds of this species harass and keep at a distance. They are also extremely tenacious of their rights, and particularly of the possession of the place chosen for rearing their young.

"I had," says Mr. Audubon, "a large and commodious house built and fixed on a pole for the reception of Martins, in an enclosure near my house, where for some years several pairs had reared their young. One winter I also put up several small boxes, with a view to invite Blue-birds to build nests in them. The Martins arrived in the spring, and imagining these small apartments more agreeable than their own mansion, took possession of them, after forcing the lovely Blue-birds from their abode. I witnessed the different conflicts, and observed that one of the Blue-birds was possessed of as much courage as his antagonists; for it was only in consequence of the more powerful blows of the Martin, that he gave up his house in which a nest was nearly finished, and he continued on all occasions to annoy the usurper as much as lay in his power. The Martin showed his head at the entrance, and merely retorted with accents of exultation and insult. I thought fit to interfere; mounted the tree on the trunk of which the Blue-bird's box was fastened, caught the Martin and clipped his tail, in the hope that such mortifying punishment might prove effectual in inducing him to move to his own tenement. No such thing; for no sooner had I launched him into the air, than he at once rushed back to the box. I again caught him and clipped the tip of each wing in such a manner that he still could fly sufficiently well to procure food, and once more set him at liberty. The desired effect, however, was not produced; and as I saw the pertinacious Martin keep the box in spite of all my wishes that he should give it up, I seized him in anger, and disposed of him in such a way that he never returned to the neighbourhood." pp. 117, 118.

To the description of the *Wood Thrush* we can only refer our readers; and this we do partly because it is the author's "greatest favorite of the feathered tribe of the forest," and partly because it contains a beautiful train of moral and religious reflections associated with this "hermit of the woods."

The *Barred Owl*, whose discordant and ludicrous screams

Mr. Audubon compares to "the affected bursts of laughter which we may have heard from some of the fashionable members of our own species," is, it seems, not only a bird of wisdom, but a bird of fun.

"How often when snugly settled under the boughs of my temporary encampment, and preparing to roast a venison steak or the body of a squirrel, on a wooden spit, have I been saluted with the exulting bursts of this mighty disturber of the peace, that, had it not been for him, would have prevailed around me, as well as in my lonely retreat! How often have I seen this nocturnal marauder alight within a few yards of me, exposing his whole body to the glare of my fire, and eye me in such a curious manner, that, had it been reasonable to do so, I would gladly have invited him to walk in, and join me in my repast, that I might have enjoyed the pleasure of forming a better acquaintance with him. The liveliness of his motions joined to their oddness, have often made me think that his society would be at least as agreeable as that of many of the buffoons we meet with in the world. But as such opportunities of forming acquaintance have not existed, be content, kind reader, with the imperfect information which I can give you of the habits of this Sancho Panza of our woods.

"Such persons as conclude, when looking upon owls in the glare of day, that they are as they then appear, extremely dull, are greatly mistaken. Were they to state, like Buffon, that Woodpeckers are miserable beings, they would be talking as incorrectly; and to one who had lived only in the woods, they would seem to have lived long in their libraries." pp. 242, 243.

We must pass by the *Mocking Bird*, "the king of song derived from Nature's self"; the *Song Sparrow*, one of the sweetest and most persevering musicians; the frolicksome *Red-headed Woodpecker*, so expert, like all its namesakes, in discovering and procuring insects concealed under the bark of trees; the *Goldfinches* so fond of each other's company, and so cheerfully uniting in their sweet concerts when assembled; the *Tyrant Fly-catcher* (King-bird), hitherto harshly treated and persecuted by man, but generously defended by our author; the different species of *Hawks*, and all the *Warblers*; the *Ruby-throated Humming Bird*, so poetically described, which skilfully draws the insects from the cup of the flower, and "sips so small a portion of its liquid honey, that the theft, we may suppose, is looked upon

with a grateful feeling by the flower, which is thus kindly relieved from the attacks of her destroyers." Omitting the author's account of these and many other birds which afford interesting traits of character, we shall close our review of the "Ornithological Biography" with a few words upon the Eagle.

The *White-headed Eagle*, improperly called *Bald Eagle*, probably because the white plumage of its head gives it the appearance of being bare, has more bad than good qualities; and Mr. Audubon laments, with Franklin, that this "bird of bad moral character," which lives by pilfering from others, and does not thrive withal, nor show courage proportioned to its strength, should have been chosen as the emblem or representative of our country.

The *Bird of Washington*, the first sight of which species of Eagle unknown to naturalists, Mr. Audubon obtained in ascending the Mississippi, in 1814, and which he saw a few years afterwards in Kentucky, was finally killed by him not far from Henderson, a village in that state, where he then resided. This king of birds he seems to have regarded, as well he might, the great trophy which was to grace and consummate his triumph, after his signal conquests. But we will take his own description.

"I saw an Eagle rise from a small enclosure not a hundred yards before me, and alight upon a low tree branching over the road. I prepared my double-barrelled piece, which I constantly carry, and went slowly and cautiously towards him. Quite fearlessly he awaited my approach, looking upon me with undaunted eye. I fired and he fell. Before I reached him he was dead. With what delight did I survey the magnificent bird! Had the finest salmon ever pleased him as he did me? Never. I ran and presented him to my friend, with a pride which they alone can feel, who, like me, have devoted themselves from their earliest childhood to such pursuits, and who have derived from them their first pleasures. To others I must seem to 'prattle out of fashion.'

"The name which I have chosen for this new species of Eagle, 'The Bird of Washington,' may by some be considered as preposterous and unfit; but as it is indisputably the noblest bird of its genus that has yet been discovered in the United States, I trust I shall be allowed to honor it with the name of one who was the saviour of his country.

"All circumstances duly considered, the Bird of Wash-

ton stands forth as the champion of America, *sua specie*, and henceforth not to be confounded with any of its rivals or relatives. If ornithologists are proud of describing new species, I may be allowed to express some degree of pleasure in giving to the world the knowledge of so majestic a bird." pp. 60, 61, 65.

After the description of every fifth species of birds, in correspondence with the Illustrations, each number of which consists of five, the author pauses, and presents his reader with a description of some place ; of various scenery beautiful or sublime ; of physical phenomena ; or he tells a story which relates to his own experience, tragic, comic, or farcical ; or draws a striking portrait of some individual, or a vivid picture of savage life or rustic hospitality.\*

It is truly delightful amidst the crowd of scrap-books, and discordant fragmentary compilations in natural science, to meet with a work whose professed author is the real author. This is eminently the case with the "Ornithological Biography." Mr. Audubon shot the birds, and examined their whole external conformation. He watched their movements and their employments when alive, examined their nests, ascertained the usual number of their eggs, their periods of incubation, their manner of cherishing their young ; in short, he acquainted himself, by personal observation, with their whole history and manner of life. These circumstances give a peculiar charm to his work, and cause us to look forward with great interest to the volumes which are to come ; and also to another "distinct work," in which, he says, "it is my intention, at some future time, to lay before the public the

\* There is an air of romantic wildness prevailing the realities of these descriptions, which seems to have had a peculiar charm for some of the Scottish critics. In "Blackwood's Magazine," before referred to, for July and August last, there are most bountiful selections from these and other parts of the book. But the preliminary talk of the reviewers, the filling up, and the digressions, are couched in a reckless and vagrant style, the more mischievous from its sprightliness and wit. There is danger that young and aspiring writers may imitate its eccentricities, without acquiring its virtues, and thus that what was intended merely to please a prurient taste for novelty, may corrupt the unsuspecting novice, if not the more wise and wary scholar. Is not simplicity of style compatible as well with animation and wit, as with beauty and sublimity ? We appeal to the prose-writings of Dryden and Swift and Byron.

observations which I have made on the various Quadrupeds of our extensive territories."

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**ART. II.—*The Works of ARCHBISHOP LEIGHTON, prepared for the Practical Use of Private Christians. With an Introductory View of the Life, Character, and Writings of the Author.* By GEORGE B. CHEEVER. Boston. Pierce & Parker. 8vo. pp. 569.**

**ARCHBISHOP LEIGHTON** was born at Edinburgh, in 1611. In 1641, he was ordained pastor of a Presbyterian society near that city, where he remained till 1652. He was shortly after chosen principal of the University of Edinburgh, the duties of which office he discharged honorably and faithfully till 1662. Having changed his views with regard to church government, he was then, together with several other clergymen, appointed by Charles the Second to reestablish the Episcopal Church in Scotland. With characteristic modesty, he procured a nomination to the least important see,—that of Dumblane, where he remained in the diligent and unostentatious discharge of pastoral duty, till in 1669 he was appointed the successor of his friend and admirer, Burnet, Archbishop of Glasgow. In his episcopal office the union of the Episcopal and Presbyterian parties, and the restoration of ecclesiastical peace were the objects of his undivided and anxious effort. He received the usual reward of those who stand on neutral ground, and attempt to act as mediators in religious controversy,—the distrust and dislike of both parties. Finding his pacific labors fruitless, he resigned his office, and in 1674 retired to the estate of a widowed sister, where he spent the remainder of his days, gratuitously discharging ministerial and pastoral duty, shedding around him the light of a good example, relieving the poor, consoling the afflicted, and preparing the dying for death. He died while on an errand of Christian benevolence, at London, in 1684.

Though he was called to fill elevated stations, his life was by no means an eventful one; and his biography is a description of character, rather than a narration of incident.

The most prominent feature of his character was his sincere and ardent piety. "He was remarkable even in childhood for his quiet disposition and affectionate, serious man-

ners. He seems, indeed, to have been sanctified from his earliest years."

"The religion of this preëminent saint," says his biographer, the Rev. J. N. Pearson, "was incorporated with the whole frame of his life and conversation. This gave a peculiarity, which was striking and impressive, to many of his ordinary actions. They were the same things which other men did, but they were done in another manner, and bore the shining print of his angelic spirit. So impressively was this the case, that his nephew, when a little child, struck with his reverential manner of returning thanks after a meal, observed to his mother, that his uncle did not give thanks like other folk." p. xvii.

Few men have enjoyed more richly than he did the religious calm of solitude; few have walked in closer communion with God and heaven. It was in retirement only that he felt truly happy. Yet he never sought the luxury of holy meditation at the expense of duty. But, while he devoted no time to *mere social pleasure*, he was zealous and indefatigable in his benevolent efforts for the temporal and spiritual good of his brethren. He lived with the utmost frugality, kept three fasts a week, and distributed to the poor (generally through the hands of others) all his income, except the slender pittance which his abstemious habits required. And upon the unenlighted peasant, the broken-hearted penitent, the sorely stricken mourner, the sick and the dying, he conferred by his instructions, counsels, and prayers a far more precious gift than that silver and gold which he received only to bestow. Wherever the teachings or consolations of the Gospel were needed, he felt that duty called him, and he carried thither a mind richly stored with spiritual treasure and a heart glowing with fraternal affection, ready to sympathize, willing to communicate, rejoicing in the opportunity of doing good.

Nor was this all. He had a truly liberal and catholic spirit. He regarded piety as the exclusive property of no sect, and as materially affected by the adoption or rejection of none of those unessential forms in which human ingenuity has arrayed Christianity. He seems to have joined the Episcopal party, rather because he thought their form of church government best adapted to promote ecclesiastical peace, than because he was firmly convinced of the divine right of episcopacy and the insufficiency of Presbyterian ordi-

nation. And in the discharge of his Episcopal office, his great object was not to build up his own sect on the ruins of its rivals, but to amalgamate both under a system of church government, which should embrace the excellences and avoid the evils of each form,—under a system which might withdraw the attention of Christians from unessentials, and fix it upon truth and duty.

"It is related of him," says his biographer, Pearson, "that going one day to visit a leading Presbyterian minister, he found him discoursing to his company on the duties of a holy life. Leighton, instead of turning off to the subject of the current reasons for non-conformity, though he had gone for the express purpose of discussing them, instantly fell in with the train of conversation, and concluded his visit without attempting to change it. To some of his friends who remonstrated with him on this apparent oversight; *Nay*, he replied, *the good man and I are in the main agreed; and for the points in which we differ, they are mostly unimportant; and though they be of moment, it is advisable before pressing any, to win as many volunteers as we can.*" p. xxii.

All of Leighton's biographers bestow the highest praise upon his humility. Burnet says, that "he seemed to have the lowest thoughts of himself possible, and to desire that all other persons should think as meanly of him as he did of himself; and he bore all sorts of ill usage and reproach, like a man that took pleasure in it." He seems to have had an ineffably mean opinion of himself, not only absolutely with reference to the divine requirements, and his own merits, but relatively in comparison with his brethren. Now to our apprehension he is the exemplar of Christian humility, who takes a just view of his own talents and capacities, and who, while he bows before God in deep contrition for the abuse of his powers and his frequent transgressions, yet assumes among his fellow-men the rank which a just self-examination will assign him, and defends that rank as the post of duty in which God has placed him. We regard, not with admiration, but with pity, nay, with an emotion bordering on contempt, the good man who humbles himself, not only before his holy God, but before the vilest of his fellow-men, and who can receive as justly due to him reproach and insult from those whom he has never injured,—from those whom he has wished and striven to benefit.

It is to this habit of self-depreciation, that we are to attribute Leighton's want of energy. He was far from being an indolent man. His whole life was a life of active benevolence. But we see him constantly shrinking from public responsibility, assuming the episcopal office with extreme reluctance, pursuing (it must be confessed) a vacillating course in behalf of the prime object of his desires, and finally, while yet in full possession of his mental powers and his usual health of body abandoning in despair that object and his office. This apostle of peace indeed thought himself alone. So thought Elijah, when he reared his altar upon Mount Carmel ; but his God was with him ; the idol fell, and the vast assembly of his worshippers departed shouting the praises of Jehovah. And then the prophet found that seven thousand of his countrymen had never bowed the knee to Baal. Thus, had Leighton persevered in his pacific efforts, he might through the aid of the God of peace have effected the desired reconciliation ; and in such an event he would doubtless have found that the hearts and the prayers and the regret and the secret endeavours of thousands of holy men had all along been with him.

We have been thus minute in our outline of Leighton's moral qualities, because they, rather than any mental peculiarity, give a character to his works. These present the highest standard of Christian virtue, and bear the impress of a mind of almost unearthly purity, ever striving after perfection. They were written solely for edification, are admirably adapted to that end, and adapted to no other. Leighton treats almost exclusively of practical subjects,—says much of duties, little of doctrines, scarcely any thing of forms and ceremonies. The deep interest which he took in those under his influence may be discerned on every page. His deep humility is as evident in his writings as it was in his life. He ever presents the highest views of the divine requirements, and the lowest possible of human virtue. We should, indeed, have been better pleased to find the *true ground* of Christian humility, namely, the dignity and capacities of our nature, more distinctly brought to view. We have always thought that such low views of human nature, as we find in this author, tend to foster pride rather than humility ; for a man who thinks that in opposition to the very laws and tendency of his nature he has acquired some

degree of virtue, has better ground for boasting than for self-abasement.

We have never been acquainted with an author whose style of thought and language is so *scriptural*. Almost every paragraph unfolds some sentiment borrowed from the Scriptures. His imagery is almost exclusively scriptural. His familiarity with the sacred volume seems to have arrayed all objects in an Asiatic dress, so that his allusions even to the scenery about him, and to the habits and manners of his contemporaries, would apply almost as well to Palestine and its ancient tenants, as to England and his countrymen.

He is always solemn and fervid, seldom energetic, never sublime. His sole aim is to instil into his hearer's or reader's mind the principles and sentiments that pervade his own; and he therefore never shrouds thought behind a rich, but impenetrable veil of rhetorical drapery. He expresses himself with the most perfect simplicity, like a man pouring forth his whole soul in confidential communion with his dearest friend; and he employs figurative language only to illustrate or impress the ideas which he intends to convey.

"His style is pure, unelaborate English. It is a fountain of genuine native idioms. His pages sparkle with expressions, which without degenerating into tameness, possess a delightful colloquial simplicity. There is more of the Saxon part of our language than of words of other origin. His words are, indeed, unexampled in that age for simplicity and purity; and they seem to arrange themselves as self-intelligent, in the easiest and most unpremeditated forms, like dew imperceptibly descending on the mown grass." pp. xlv, xlvi.

He is said to have been a man of great learning. He wrote in the Latin language with much ease and a good degree of purity. He frequently makes felicitous classical allusions and citations. As a biblical critic, his scriptural expositions would place him very far below his great contemporaries Lightfoot, Whithy, and Locke. His writings display not theological research. He seems to have early imbibed the tenets of the Genevan school, then dominant in Scotland, and to have been deterred from putting them to the test of reason and Scripture, not by fear that he might find them false, but by a conviction that to fathom them was hopeless, and to doubt them sacrilegious. He, therefore, throughout his works takes the Calvinistic system for granted.

But his Calvinism is neither harsh nor obtrusive ; and if his readers will think of him only as a Christian and a holy man, and will seek his aid in the work of self-examination, in their private meditations, in their preparation for duty, for trial, and for death, they cannot fail to find him a profitable guide.

His *Commentary on 1 Peter* is his longest and his most finished work. It is not a *commentary* in the technical sense of the word ; but a series of *practical observations* embracing every clause in the Epistle. His other extant works are *Expositions of the Lord's Prayer*, the *Apostles' Creed*, and the *Ten Commandments*; *Expository Lectures* on various parts of the Bible ; *Sermons* ; *Addresses* to the Students of the University ; and a few shorter pieces.

The selection before us is made with Mr. Cheever's usual taste and fidelity. As Leighton never wrote for effect, we can present to our readers no striking passages. We offer the following remarks from his *Commentary on 1 Peter*, "on the Duty of Serving God in our Own Peculiar Calling and Condition," as a fair specimen of his style of thought and language.

"Grace finds a way to exert itself in every estate where it exists, and regulates the soul according to the particular duties of that estate. Whether it find a man high or low, a master or a servant, it requires not a change of his station, but works a change on his heart, and teaches him how to live in it. The same spirit that makes a Christian master pious, and gentle, and prudent in commanding, makes a Christian servant faithful, and obsequious, and diligent in obeying. A skilful engraver makes you a statue indifferently of wood, or stone, or marble, as they are put into his hand ; so Grace forms a man to a Christian way of walking in any estate. There is a way for him in the meanest condition to glorify God, and to adorn the profession of religion ; no estate so low as to be shut out from that ; and a rightly informed and rightly affected conscience towards God, shows a man that way, and causes him to walk in it. As the astrologers say, that the same stars that made Cyrus to be chosen king amongst the armies of men when he came to be a man, made him to be chosen king amongst the shepherd's children when he was a child ; thus Grace will have its proper operation in every estate.

"In this men readily deceive themselves ; they can do any thing well in imagination, better than the real task that is in their hands. They presume that they could do God good ser-

vice in some place of command, who serve Him not, as becomes them, in that which is the easier, the place of obeying, wherein he hath set them. They think that if they had the ability and opportunities that some men have, they would do much more for religion, and for God, than they do; and yet they do nothing but spoil a far lower part than that which is their own, and is given them to obey and act aright in. But our folly and self-ignorance abuse us; it is not our part to choose what we should be, but to be what we are, to His glory who gives us to be such." pp. 183, 184.

The Memoir prefixed to this volume by Mr. Cheever shows a rich mind, a vivid imagination, great purity of moral taste, an enthusiastic admiration of virtue and holiness, and a devout spirit. But it has some very prominent faults, only two of which our limits will permit us to notice.

The first of these is the extravagant and bewildering use of figurative language. Of this the following is an instance.

"Leighton's writings are not, like many others (and even powerful minds), now a waste of sand, and now an oasis of exceeding beauty; they are all one perpetual variety of rich and solemn scenery, where you walk on in unconscious progress from one spot to another, now lost in the religious gloom and echoing walks of the forest, now emerging into the open light, which gleams upon thick golden furze and wild flowers, now watching the spire of a distant village, or the smoke rising through trees from a concealed hamlet, now listening to the roar of a waterfall, and now coming to an opening where you can see the ocean. Here we are ever in the land of Beulah. We are walking in the king's own gardens built for the entertainment of the pilgrims. It seems as if we were wandering in Eden, through a forest of spices; attended all the while by solemn warbling melodies, that rise and steal upon the ear as sacredly as if they were voices of praise from spirits dwelling in the flowers." p. xlvi.

Now this is a beautiful description of just such a pilgrimage as an amateur pedestrian would rejoice to make. But we would challenge any one, who (to continue Mr. Cheever's figure) walks or *wades* through our good Archbishop's works, to carry this paragraph with him, and identify the *furze*, and the *steeple*, and the *smoke*, and the *roaring*, and the *spirits dwelling in the flowers*, which the fanciful compiler has discovered.

He thus describes Leighton's illustrations :

" His illustrations are imimitably beautiful, and he throws them off with surprising fertility. They give such clearness to the thought, at the same time admitting the rich light of a fine imagination to stream upon it, that what was before but an intellectual abstraction, receives, as it were, an instantaneous creation, and becomes a *thing* of sensible life and beauty ; as if one of the invisible spirits, passing by in the air, should on a sudden assume a bodily shape of glory to the eye. His figures detain and fix for the mind's inspection the subtle shades of thought, and finish and shape those timid, half-disclosed spiritual appearances, that else, as they come to the vision like birds of Paradise, would fly away as quickly. It is as if the restless clouds with all the evanescent beauty of their deepening and changing lines at sunset, should hear a voice, and remain for hours motionless and the same, in extreme stillness to the sight." pp. xlvi, xlvii.

This is fine, very fine ; but what does it all mean ? It would take one many minutes to conjure up a class or kind of figures which this description would suit, and as many hours to discern its applicability in any sense or degree to Leighton's style of illustration.

We are the more sorry that Mr. Cheever has fallen into this bombastic style of writing, because we do not conceive he needs it to conceal poverty of thought ; and because he has chosen a profession in which simplicity is the soul of eloquence, and has undertaken to dispense truths which are "when unadorned, adorned the most."

The other fault of this Memoir, which we proposed to mention, is the two free use of superlatives with regard to Leighton and his writings. Its author seems to suppose Leighton's sanctity unequalled, unapproached since the days of the Apostles. But in our opinion, he need not go out of our own State to find a Bishop equally venerable for Christian graces and virtues ; and we should lose our faith in the worth of intellectual advancement, did we believe that the present era of light and knowledge exhibits no one who can compare in point of holiness with an ornament of that *comparatively* unenlightened age. The encomiums which are lavished upon Leighton's writings in this Memoir would lead the reader to expect an union of the brightest fancy, the purest taste, the most profound research, the most energetic eloquence, with

that ardent piety which constitutes their chief characteristic ; and one cannot pass from Mr. Cheever to the selections given in his volume without experiencing very great disappointment.

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- ART. III.—1. *A Grammar of Elocution, containing the Principles of the Arts of Reading and Speaking, illustrated by Appropriate Exercises and Examples.*** By JONATHAN BARBER, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, London. New-Haven. A. H. Maltby. 1832. 12mo. pp. 346.
- 2. *A Practical Treatise on Gesture, chiefly Abstracted from Austin's Chironomia; adapted to the Use of Students.*** By JONATHAN BARBER, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, London. Cambridge. Hilliard & Brown. 1831. 12mo. pp. 116.

MUCH, and we think in some degree not undeserved, blame has been laid upon the character of public speaking in this country, especially in our seminaries of learning, as exhibited in the performances of the pupils. Considerable attention has of late years been paid to remedying, or attempting to remedy, this, and it is believed not altogether without success. Among other means employed has been the use of works on Elocution of an elementary character. The old "Readers" and "Speakers," as they were called, have been thrown aside, and a new race of productions of higher pretensions and more accurately analytical character has succeeded to them. Among the most conspicuous of them is the first of the works named at the head of this article. Many of the ideas and principles contained in it, as the author avows, are drawn from an elaborate treatise on the "Philosophy of the Human Voice," by Dr. James Rush of Philadelphia; and the labor of Dr. Barber has been, to give them a practical application, with such elucidations and illustrations, as should render the work an elementary guide to the future orators of our country.

The first fifty pages are devoted to the subject of Articulation, containing preliminary observations on the importance of distinctness and accuracy as the basis of good delivery,

and tables and explanations of the different elements of articulate sounds in the English language.

The preliminary remarks are just and forcible, and we recommend them to the serious attention of every one who, whether reading or speaking on any occasion whatsoever, desires to be listened to with either pleasure or profit. With regard to the elementary doctrines of articulation in detail, we are not so well satisfied. The author begins with taking for an example the word *man*, which he divides into its three elementary sounds of *m*, *a*, *n*, and undertakes to give each as a distinct sound. Now we have never seen a definition of a *consonant* which did not state, that it could not be sounded without the help of a *vowel*; and if Dr. Barber be able to sound *m* and *n*, or any other consonants except in conjunction, *actual conjunction*, with a vowel, every body hitherto must have been in the wrong; that they have been so, we do not feel inclined to admit. According to our ideas, the only *distinct* sounds in the language are those of the vowels, which are sent forth from the vocal organs of the larynx through the open mouth, the organs of which by slight movements, without any occlusion or bringing in contact of opposite parts, give them all the modification necessary for their easy and perfect utterance. When in uttering a vowel sound, opposite parts, either external or internal, of the mouth are at the same time brought in contact with each other, a peculiar modification of the vowel sound takes place, which modification is called a consonant, and varies according to the exact mode and force of the contact. *R* when pronounced by itself, that is, as *ar*, is the only consonant uttered without some such contact; the reason may be found in its expressing one of the sounds of *a*. This contact is not a sound but a peculiar sort of aspiration or inflexion; and therefore to utter the sounds of the consonants as distinct sounds we hold to be an impossibility, and directions for doing so, and descriptions of them, to be not only futile, but likely to endanger the formation of a habit of harsh utterance. The author observes with great good nature, that he never yet in his lectures "pronounced the vocal elements of the language without exciting the mirthful wonder of his audience." Not without reason we should think; especially since he compares the sound of *m*, as spoken by itself, to the lowing of an ox.

This elementary error in some degree runs through the explanations, and mars the doctrine, which in some respects with regard to the vowels contains matter worthy of attention. The whole is too much drawn out; since the really necessary rules for distinct and accurate articulation might be comprised in much less space. The introduction of a diagram to illustrate a vanishing sound, seems to us perfectly useless if a reader has any tolerable conception of the meaning of language.

After this, which may be considered as an introduction, the author enters upon the proper subject of Elocution, or the employment of all those various intonations, cadences, and pauses in the utterance of language, necessary for giving perfect expression to its import, and suited to render the utterance agreeable to the ear of the listener.

The subject is copiously treated under various heads, far too numerous to be particularly mentioned within the limits to which our remarks must be confined. In a number of these divisions we have noticed much pertinent and useful matter. As a whole, the treatise may not unjustly be spoken of as minute and profound, and with regard to the analysis and discrimination of the various modifications of sound, as existing in the natural expression of passions and emotions, it appears to us to be generally correct and philosophical.

These are its merits, and however paradoxical it may seem, they are likewise its defects. To illustrate our meaning, let the book be taken up and attentively perused by a scholar, who from practice and observation has gained a knowledge of the different modulations of the voice, as expressive of meaning, and as harmonious to the ear, and who has such a command of his own vocal organs, that he can employ these modulations at pleasure in his own enunciation. In repeating according to his own judgment the various passages of prose and poetry used by the author as illustrations, and comparing the various tones produced with the scales, &c., connected with these passages in the work, he will, we think, recognise their correctness, and if his ear be fine and musical, he will be able to follow the author into the niceties of his analysis; but without a musical ear, and perhaps we might say, some musical skill also, this last cannot well be done. Let an ordinary reader or speaker, however, one of moderate knowledge and abilities, such as the generality of

our young men at college, particularly those not musically gifted, take up the work and commence a diligent perusal and study of it, he will soon find himself bewildered among the numerous divisions of the subject, and inappreciable distinctions of sound and scales ; and, with the exception of such passages of general remark as have been already referred to, the farther he proceeds, the worse confounded will confusion become, till all is a perfect chaos in his mind. He will be lost in the mazes of the subject, resembling, to use a homely but not unapt comparison, "a chicken in a field of peas." In short, the very minuteness of detail with which the subject is treated, will prevent him from comprehending it. Yet it is for persons of whom this last supposition offers an example, that the work is intended, and, as a manual of instruction, we think that in this particular it must fail to effect its purpose.

It is true, that with the help of an accomplished instracter, who can give practical illustrations, some, even many, of these difficulties in the way of comprehension may be surmounted, and the pupil may acquire appropriate inflections and management of the voice ; but it will be by the ear, by observation and imitation, and not by the help of the definitions and scales and diagrams. He may be able to repeat all the definitions, and answer correctly all the questions in the book, but they will not advance him one tittle in the management of his own voice ; and such ability will only afford an instance of a truth too often overlooked, that learning is not knowledge, though they are much too often confounded. Attempting to form the intonations and modulations of the voice by means of scales and diagrams, is extremely apt to give a very evidently artificial, and therefore faulty, delivery ; the means may be far too readily traced in the result.

It may be asked, How then are the requisites of a good delivery to be obtained ? To answer this question at all fully would carry us far beyond the limits to which we must restrict ourselves on this subject. The only answer we can give must be a general one. To practice must be added the *imitation* of nature. This is the source of *oratorical* excellence ; an observation of the tones, the looks, and the gestures displayed under the influence of real passion or emotion, and an adoption of them according to the exigency of the case. Assistance may doubtless be rendered by well adapt-

ed works and treatises ; but they must be of a different character in several respects, from that of the work before us ; although there are parts in it of which we approve, such as many of the general observations or leading remarks in some of the divisions, and the section entitled "Analysis of Written Language." Yet the observation and imitation of nature, and the full understanding of the purport of what is read or spoken, must be the main things, seconded by an accurate and distinct articulation, which is indeed an all-important preliminary qualification. To this much of the labor of Demosthenes was directed, and imitation was to him, as it must be to others, the means of acquiring this. Some writer, we recollect not whom, speaking of the unwearied labors of the great orator on this point, observes with genuine Gallic unction, "that he did not disdain even to go to the dogs to learn by the imitation of them how to pronounce the letter R." If there be any truth in this, it may seem to illustrate our remark ; but we cannot help thinking there must be some mistake ; for we do not see how he could gain the proposed end, unless the dogs of ancient Greece spoke a language very different from the bow-wow-wow of the canine race of modern days.

The last hundred and fifty pages of the "Grammar of Elocution" are filled with exercises, divided as to time by bars, scored to mark the accents of each syllable, and with pauses or rests denoted by figures. This, as a whole, seems to us one of the most useful parts of the book, and with the assistance of the general remarks will be worth more to the learner than all the rest. The notation of these exercises we consider to be good, though in a few passages that we noticed, our ears and taste would have prompted some variation.

When we first took up the "Treatise on Gesture," which is abstracted mainly from Austin's *Chironomia*, and saw the forbidding display of symbolical apparatus and diagrams, and the figures of amputated feet and hands in all positions, we were seized with a sort of prejudice, good-natured indeed, but which even of this kind it is not well to cherish, as being not very favorable to candid examination. And when we looked further, and our eyes took in the long array of pictured men and women, in all the various attitudes of oratorical gesticulation, the *Chironomia* brought at once to our

recollection the *structor chironomon* of Juvenal, which for the benefit of our unclassical readers we shall present in the sufficiently faithful translation of Gifford :

“Lo ! the spruce carver, to his task addrest,  
Skips, like a harlequin, from place to place,  
And waves his knife with pantomimic grace,  
Till every dish be ranged, and every joint  
Dissected, by just rules, from point to point.  
Thou think’st this folly — ’t is a vulgar thought —  
To such perfection, now, is carving brought,  
That different gestures, by our curious men  
Are used for different dishes, hare and hen.”

It may be thought profane to compare with each other the impression made upon the mind, and the excitement produced on the palate, through the eye ; but it will not be considered very far-fetched, when it is recollectcd that some of the greatest philosophers, critics, and orators of recent times have been among the most distinguished proficients in the refinements of the modern Epicurean school.

When we went beyond a mere cursory external gazing at the pages and illustrations of this book, which we exceedingly fear very few have done, we found many things worthy the attention of every public speaker. The more general directions for the position of the feet for the sake of the comfort and freedom of the speaker and a graceful appearance, are doubtless useful ; and many of the rules in regard to the movements of the arms, hands, and fingers are important ; and no less important are the enumeration and description of faults in the management of these parts of the body. The same is true in respect to a great part of the directions concerning the motions of the head and eyes, the body and limbs, and to the cautions given against excess in the use of gesture, and violence in the manner of using it. But these are things which this “Treatise” possesses in common with many other works of a similar kind, and might well enough have been annexed to the “Grammar of Elocution.” It is to what is peculiar to this treatise, and to that of the author from which it is chiefly taken, that Dr. Barber must attach the chief importance.

Passing over what pertains to the positions of the feet which has more to do with theatrical exhibition, than with oratory as connected with the most important interests of society, — we proceed to the main subject, namely, the po-

sitions and motions of the arms and hands. The movements of the arms "simple and unforced," amount by arithmetical calculation to "one hundred and thirty-nine," as we are told ; besides the varieties occasioned by "deflections from the exact line" prescribed. So that, as the author remarks, "This view of gesture, in the very outset of the system, shows how prolific it is." The movements of the hands and fingers are not, we should judge, by a rough guess, much less numerous than those of the arms ; though the same permutations and combinations are not gone through with, for obtaining a similar result. Suppose then the different motions for the arms from the shoulder to the extremities of the hand, to be something less than three hundred ; this is a pretty large alphabet of gesture, and it is little more than an alphabet according to the author's account.

"If the different classes of gestures of the hand are combined with the elevations and transverse positions of the arm, the result will be a very comprehensive system of gesture, capable of recording, for the most part distinctly and impressively, the sentiments of the public speaker, in the various circumstances in which he may be placed. The ELEMENTS are here placed before the student. The combinations must be left to his own taste and discretion. He will find, however, in the Illustrations, important aids in the prosecution of his design." p. 21.

The Illustrations here mentioned are not the figures which we have already referred to, representing the attitudes or certain states of gesture to the eye, which in the body of the work are described, the several descriptions being numbered to correspond with the figures ; but they are certain select passages of poetry and prose to which symbolical letters are attached, indicating the gesture suited to particular words or phrases. This symbolical apparatus of letters is abundantly explained, first separately, then combined in sets, then by a "synoptical arrangement," and lastly by an alphabetical tabular arrangement. Besides this, each piece selected for illustration is followed by a "Glossary explanatory of the Symbolical Letters," and some "Analytical Observations."

We have thus endeavoured to give as far as possible, in so small a compass, an account of Dr. Barber's "Treatise on Gesture," called practical, but which will not be likely to be very thoroughly practised. It is not difficult to understand it, though it must require considerable exercise of

memory to retain it for the sake of use. When we speak of its being easily understood, we mean what is merely external and mechanical, which of itself every one will acknowledge is of no value. The value of gesture must consist in aiding or enforcing the expression of sentiment or emotion ; and the prescribing of rules for adapting it to this end, must give considerable scope to imagination. The voice is the chief interpreter of inward feeling, expressed in natural language, aided too by the countenance, concerning which all rules are vain ; and though the action may often be so suited to the word as to attract attention and increase the effect, yet we doubt whether any two natural orators, if we may so speak, will be found, who bear any striking resemblance to each other in this respect. So long as gesture is a mere practice of rules, it is impossible that the art should be disguised ; and consequently in this state it has nothing to do with eloquence, — it is upon the same level with dancing or gymnastic exploits. They may all be useful in their effects, and gesture most of all, when art is forgotten. But in gesture it should be forgotten before it grows into habit. We have heard and seen public speakers, somewhat advanced in life, who never threw off the gesture of the schools, graceful it might be, but artificial and unexpressive. And we have seen awkward men, too, who never moved an arm, a hand, or finger by rule, who were full of energy and effect in their action. Lest, however, we should be thought too latitudinarian in our notions, we freely acknowledge that it is the business of rules and teaching to correct every thing awkward, as far as possible, and to point out what is graceful. But the danger to be avoided, is that of teaching too much, and too artificially ; and this is the sum of our objections to Dr. Barber's "Practical Treatise" ; though we are aware that his remarkable and well-known success in his vocation may be alleged as an unanswerable reply to our opinions thus honestly expressed.

**ART. IV.—1. *An Introduction to English Grammar, on an Analytical Plan, adapted to the Use of Students in Colleges and the Higher Classes in Schools and Academies.*** By SAMUEL WEBBER, A. M., M. D. Cambridge. Hilliard & Brown. 1832. 12mo. pp. 116.

**2. *A New Grammar of the English Language.*** New York. Collins & Hannay. 1831. 12mo. pp. 78.

DR. WEBBER in his "English Grammar," while he adheres to a plan much more analytical than that of any other grammar of our language which has come to our knowledge, retains the common nomenclature in the division of words, and treats them in such a way as to combine a regard to classification and practical use, with philosophical analysis. In doing this he has been necessarily deprived of the privilege of which most of his predecessors, since the time of Lowth, have freely availed themselves. They have followed in the track of that great philologist, occasionally filling up some of his outlines, and deviating here and there in matters of fashion, rather than of substantial import; while they have actually fallen behind him in some of the more philosophical parts of his "Introduction to English Grammar." Dr. Webber's Grammar, therefore, is in its general appearance a new work. He has abandoned altogether the hackneyed and inadequate set of definitions which have heretofore been the common stock of grammarians, as if by joint inheritance, and has resorted to explanations which, if they sometimes require too much study for the idle and inexperienced, always reward examination by imparting a well-defined meaning, resulting from thorough induction.

Such are the general character and merits of this work, both in respect to its plan and execution. That part which treats of the letters, of the vowel sounds, and the combinations of letters, as affecting their sounds, is marked by a great degree of discrimination in most particulars, but is not always accompanied with sufficient fulness of illustration. The Etymological part we shall pass over with a very few cursory remarks, till we come to the verb. In some instances, the author's phraseology, though logically exact, might be somewhat simplified; as for example, in the account of the derivation of words, contained in the first paragraph

upon Etymology. In denying to the substantive an objective case, he seems to us to have been too fastidious. Case is not merely a change of form which shows the relation of a noun to other words, but also, and more philosophically, the relation itself. But as in English we have no changes of form to express the different relations, except that which denotes possession, it would make our syntax very complex and difficult, to apply rules to these relations, and to denominate them by all the terms which are used where inflexion is most extended. Our grammarians, therefore, have not gone beyond a third case called the Objective, which they have generally introduced, and not without good reasons; for pronouns have this case in a distinct form. Besides it appears a little awkward when the author comes to the Syntax, to say, as he does very properly for the sake of consistency, — “Every active verb has some noun, pronoun, or equivalent expression, as its object; the pronoun always in the objective case.” And again, — “Prepositions require after them a noun, pronoun, or equivalent expression, as an object, the pronoun in the objective case.” It is for these reasons that we think the author too fastidious in making this innovation. In other respects we followed him with great satisfaction till we came to the verb, the *crux grammaticorum*, and the occasion sometimes of angry conflicts. For strange as it may seem, that grave grammarians should ever be thus overtaken, yet we have stories in former times of their pulling each other by the beard for alleged pertinacity; and in one instance, of the total loss of this excrescence, long, full, and flowing, as a forfeit of a wager regarding the termination of a tense. And in times not long passed, John Horne Tooke turned up his nose at all the grammarians for their stupidity in analysing this part of speech; and quitting them with a sneer, abruptly closed his book, and left his reader as much in the dark as before.

If Dr. Webber fails to satisfy us in all respects concerning this intricate part of grammar, it is not to be wondered at. He has certainly treated it with great acuteness, and will doubtless make many skeptics upon some points which were before considered as settled; and if in some respects we have more faith than he in old grammatical usages, we feel confident that our differences will not kindle a polemic heat which shall lead to such serious issues as those to which we have adverted.

Dr. Webber's principal innovation respecting the verb is of a mixed kind, affecting the distribution of the Tenses, and indirectly the import of the Modes. At the close of his remarks upon the modes, in which there is nothing very peculiar, he thus mingles them with the tenses, upon which he is about to speak :

" Part of the general notion of time is conveyed by the modes themselves ; thus, the Indicative, pointing out or declaring an action as a fact, must represent it either as present or past ; the Potential, declaring the power, will, intention, obligation, or necessity to act, which are prior to the action itself, must be essentially future ; the Subjunctive, expressing the action as a thing of doubt or contingency, also implies futurity ; as does likewise the Imperative, because a command, exhortation, or request to do a thing, supposes its performance to be yet to come." p. 37.

Whatever is implied concerning time in the different modes must, we apprehend, to speak logically, be considered as an accident, and not as the substance. There are two ways in which the whole subject of mode and time may be treated ; first, philosophically without regard to any particular language ; and secondly, in a practical way, having regard only to some one language. In a philosophical view there is no well-ascertained limitation in the number of modes or tenses. Practically regarded, the most convenient method is that which we find in the Greek and Latin, where the modes and tenses are fixed by inflexion. But so fickle is language that perfect consistency could not be obtained in either. Neither in Greek nor in Latin are there inflexions through all the modes and tenses of the passive voice corresponding to the active, which last gives laws upon the subject ; and the passive is obliged to unite with auxiliary forces to execute them. But Dr. Webber's thesis that " the Indicative mode, pointing out or declaring an action as a fact, must represent it either as present or past," we do not think can be sustained either by philosophical or by practical principles of grammar. In saying this, however, we do not feel obliged to adopt the gloss or inference of his own which he makes use of, namely — " as a fact " — which words are not found in the common definition of the Indicative, and, as we think, do not belong to it. The Indicative affirms or asks a question. The more restricted definition of Dr. Webber seems to be adapted to his theory,

and in some sort to prejudge the very case in dispute ; which we hold to be extra-judicial, and also unwise, since he has pleaded his cause most ably, endeavoured to sustain it by applying the most ingenious and powerful arguments that it admits, and should therefore have left it to stand or fall by the force of truth and public opinion.

Let us look into the case. *Should* and *would* appear, claiming to be the legitimate issue of *shall* and *will*, and alleging against certain lawless persons called grammarians, that their parents have been forcibly removed from them to a distant region, and have been compelled to serve for all futurity, a strange master, against their volition, sense of duty, and innate consciousness of power. Such is the allegation ; and the question arising thereon is argued with great ability by Dr. Webber, who maintains that *shall* and *will* should be restored to their home, and to their lawful connexions, and reinstated in all their privileges and immunities.

The distribution of Modes and Tenses in conformity to his view of the import of *shall* and *will*, which he transfers from the Future Indicative to the Potential, Dr. Webber exhibits thus. INDICATIVE MODE, with four Tenses, *Present*, *Imperfect*, *Perfect*, and *Pluperfect*. — POTENTIAL (or FUTURE MODE) with a *Present Tense*, (or *First Future* with *shall* and *will*), *Imperfect Tense* (or *1st Conditional*), *Perfect Tense* (or *2d Future* with *shall* and *will*), *Pluperfect Tense* (or *2d Conditional*.) The *Subjunctive* corresponds in its tenses to the Indicative. In the Imperative, which he rightly confines to the second person, a second tense is added : as, “Have thou, or do thou have finished.”

This account of the modes and tenses of the regular verb, shows how the author has disposed of those troublesome words *shall* and *will*, so as to preserve their signification of futurity in common with *may* and *can*, differing only in degree or obviousness ; while the mode is made paramount, including with its potential signification that also of futurity. To bring this subject as near as possible to a single point, it seems to us that Dr. Webber dissents from other English grammarians by insisting upon the primary signification of *shall* and *will*, as denoting power, obligation, or volition ; these he takes to be the leading significations, and that of futurity as secondary or introduced by implication. On the contrary, those grammarians who have used the same words

as auxiliaries in forming a future tense, have had regard merely to their conventional use ; and if this, by whatever means, has gained the ascendancy, it is in vain to contend against it. This last view of the case seems to us to be the true one, though not wholly free from difficulties. In the most natural enunciation of the phrases, “ I shall finish, you or he will finish,—we shall finish, you or they will finish,” futurity and nothing but futurity is obviously expressed, and nothing more of power, intention, or obligation is implied, than such as belongs to future time in the nature of things, and to the words in all languages that express it. If we reverse the *shall* and *will*, it must be confessed that the case is greatly changed, particularly in the second and third persons, so that we should be willing to compromise with our author, by giving up *shall* in these persons, if we knew what to do with it, a matter of some doubt ; for the Imperative might lay as strong a claim to it as the Potential. The imperative is so nearly allied to the future, that some of the old grammarians, Sanctius and others, and among the modern, Gebelin, discarded it altogether as a mode, and referred it to the Future Indicative. And no reader of Latin can have failed to perceive that the Future Indicative, and the Present Subjunctive, where a potential signification is often required, run into each other, if we may so speak, continually. But we cannot go so far even as we feel inclined into this metaphysical discussion, and therefore must close our remarks with a few words upon the Syntax in the Grammar of which we are speaking.

This Syntax, according to our taste and knowledge of the subject, surpasses that of any of the grammars in common use. The rules are expressed with great care, and generally with all the clearness which the subject admits. Several anomalous phrases and constructions, which, for want of rules, the teacher has heretofore been accustomed to regard and to speak of as inexplicable idioms, or at best to explain with much circumlocution, are here classed and reduced to specific rules. Indeed, we think the plan and execution of the Syntax very judicious and successful. The rules are all preceded by an exact and sufficiently copious analysis of the expressions to which they apply, from which they flow naturally and intelligibly.

Whatever objections, or prejudices it may be, lie against

this Grammar in some particulars, yet these are so much overbalanced by its general excellence, that we cannot but regard it as a great improvement ; and if it should not in its present form take the place of grammars now in use among those for whom it is particularly intended, it may be used as an important help to enable them to understand many things which they have before repeated with an exceedingly vague and imperfect conception of their meaning.

The author of the "New Grammar," so called, which is named after Dr. Webber's, at the head of this article, claims careful attention to that part of his book which treats of the Verb. He merges the Subjunctive Mode in the Indicative ; and gives two tenses each to the Potential and Conditional Modes. What is commonly called the Perfect Tense — *I have loved* — is termed, in this Grammar, *Present Past*, a term more exceptionable than that of Lowth, who calls it, in his Synopsis of Tenses, *Present Perfect*. The term *Perfect* cannot, we think, be changed for the better. This Tense, in English, expresses past time terminating in the present.

In the conjugation of the verb *To Be* we were somewhat startled with the plural form given to the Past Tense (first form) as it is called, namely, — *we was, you was, they was*. *You was*, has been defended at least by one grammarian within our previous knowledge, without good reasons, as we think ; but this is the first time we have seen any indication that this vulgarism is extending to the other persons. And yet there is no reason why it should not, except that this form in the second person has become somewhat familiar to our ears.

The unknown author gives evidence of considerable philological research both in Etymology and Syntax, to which parts of grammar his book is confined.

**ART. V.—1. *Report of the Royal Academy of Medicine to the Minister of the Interior, upon the Cholera Morbus.***  
Published by Order of the French Government. Translated from the French, by JOHN W. STERLING, M. D., &c. New York. Samuel Wood & Sons. 1832. 8vo. pp. 234.

**2. *A Medical and Topographical History of the Cholera Morbus, including the Mode of Prevention and Treatment.***  
VOL. I. NO. V. 49

ment. By SCOUTTETTEN, Adjunct Professor at the School of Medicine at Strasburg, &c. *With a Report read at the Royal Academy of Medicine, at Paris, September 17, 1831.* Translated from the French, by A. SIDNEY DOANE, A. M., M. D. Boston. Carter & Hendee. 1832. 8vo. pp. 100.

3. *A Catechism of Facts, or Plain and Simple Rules respecting the Nature, Treatment, and Prevention of Cholera.* By A. B. GRANVILLE, M. D., F. R. S., &c. Philadelphia. E. L. Carey & A. Hart. 1832. 12mo. pp. 108.

THE first and second of the works at the head of this article, are translations from the French by physicians resident at New York. Both translations are well made, and their typographical execution reminds us of the English medical books, which are usually printed in a style of elegance, that unprofessional readers might think altogether too good for them. We are glad to see this, for the practice of publishing ordinary editions of medical works has been too common in this country. The third is a small work of Dr. Granville of London, a well-known writer on contagion.

The subject has become one of general interest, and as all the above works are singularly free from a technical character, they appear not unfit subjects of notice in this Review.

The first work is a Report read before the Royal Academy of Medicine on the 26th and 30th of July, 1831. It was made by a committee of twelve of the Academy, M. Keraudren, President, appointed at the instance of the Minister of the Interior. It may be considered, therefore, as giving us the opinions held by the most distinguished of the French medical men on the now engrossing subject of the Cholera Morbus (as by a singular pleonasm the pestilence is called), which, having ravaged almost the whole of Asia, has invaded Europe, and is now on the opposite shores of the Atlantic, threatening our own country.

This work does not pretend to give the personal experience of its authors, but is composed from documents, often of course imperfect and unsatisfactory. Its object is to collate, and present in one view, all that its authors by laborious research could learn on the subject referred to

them. It seems to us an admirable production, written with remarkable candor and sound judgment, drawing largely from the reports and treatises of the British India physicians and surgeons. These men have studied the disease for years, under the greatest variety of circumstances, and it is to them rather than to the Russian and other European physicians, that we must look for the best account of it.

The second work professes to have the same object ; to be "a complete but concise history of the Cholera Morbus." Affixed is a chart of the places where it has occurred, and its course and different directions are marked by a red line. This author also writes from data furnished by others, but he seems to have sought them with less perseverance, and examined them with less accuracy. He decides, off-hand, questions involved in much mystery. His assertions are often too positive, and his inferences sometimes illogical.

Dr. Granville is a partisan, but his work appears to us to contain many important facts and sound views.

As respects the history and nature of the disease, the three works in the main agree ; but they differ as to the mode of its propagation.

Following the order of the first of these works we shall give a short sketch of the facts known respecting Cholera. The earliest mention of this disease is by Hippocrates 400 years B. C., and it has been admirably described by Aretæus of Cappadocia. "The perspicuous, concise, accurate, and complete symptomatology which this author, who wrote at the beginning of the fifth century, has recorded, compared even with recent descriptions, or those of the present day, scarcely leaves any thing to be desired by the most fastidious individual." This disease, the characters of which are distinct and constant, has been frequently observed in all ages, and in every country, and there are few physicians who have not met with isolated cases of it. Cases thus occurring are said to be *sporadic*. It not unfrequently has assumed an *epidemic* form. Thus it was described by Hippocrates, and observed by Sydenham in London, in 1669 and 1676, who says, "It appears at the close of summer, or the beginning of autumn, as certainly as swallows in the spring, or cuckoos about the dog-days." In this form it has been noticed also in France at different epochs. The soil and climate of India have seemed peculiarly adapted to the developement of this dis-

ease, which almost constantly prevails there in its severest forms. Cholera is not a new disease therefore, but one which has prevailed in all countries from time immemorial, sometimes sporadically and sometimes epidemically. Hitherto, however, it has been a disease of warm seasons and warm countries, arising from causes more or less obvious, and ceasing on their disappearance. It is only within a few years that it has been known as a wide-spreading and devastating pestilence, depending on occult causes, slightly modified perhaps, but never controlled by the circumstances which have hitherto influenced it. It has become, therefore, a new subject of investigation, interesting not to the philosopher only, but deeply so to the philanthropist.

The first object of inquiry in the Report is, how far the present epidemic Cholera agrees with the disease which has so long been known by that name in Europe. In the first place, is quoted the description before mentioned by Aretæus (who wrote in the fifth century), which is found in all respects to tally with that of the physicians of British India, Prussia, and Poland, as it does with the account of Sydenham, in 1669, and with that of many intervening authors. The symptoms of the disease are such as no one who has once seen them can mistake. They differ in degree, but not in their nature; even the spasms from which the India Cholera takes its name, have always been observed to appertain to it. It has always been a severe disease, not seldom fatal in twenty-four hours; and the same obscurity which still hangs over its primary seat, is particularly mentioned by Celsus. The Report then concludes that the Cholera of the ancients, that of India, of Russia, and of Poland are identical as regards the phenomena. Dr. Granville shows very satisfactorily the truth of this opinion, and thinks with justice that much of the alarm which has prevailed, has arisen from the idea that it was a foreign and hitherto unknown disease which was so rapidly advancing.

We pass over the consideration of the treatment of the disease, and come to its medical and geographical history. The name of Spasmodic Cholera was first given to it by Curtis, an English naval surgeon, who first saw the disease on board a ship, off Trincomalee in the island of Ceylon, in 1782. "The disease," he says, "was one much dreaded there, and called in the country 'Mort de Chien.'" His first

five cases were fatal in a few hours. In another place he adds, "Since my return to Europe I have had occasion to see many cases of the disease called in India, *Mort de Chien*, similar in all respects to those we had in Trincomale, only that they were much milder, and attended with much less depression of the *vires nature*."

The disease did not attract much notice, for it did not prevail very extensively until the year 1817, to which time, by many, particularly the advocates of contagion, is the origin of a new form of Cholera referred.

In August of that year, it was observed at Jessore, about a hundred miles from Calcutta. Spreading from village to village it reached Calcutta early in September. Thence with terrible ravages it crossed the peninsula, and arrived at Bombay in September, 1818. At the same time it was making like progress towards the south along the Coromandel coast, whence it crossed to Ceylon. It visited most of the islands of the Indian Archipelago in the course of the next six years, and finally entered China and reigned at Pekin from 1821 to 1823. At a later period it was observed in Mauritius and the Isle of Bourbon. Bombay was its western limit until the year 1821. In that year it appeared at Muscat in Arabia, at the mouth of the Persian gulf. Thence it passed on the one hand to Bassora, and up the Tigris and Euphrates. On the other hand it crossed the gulf to Busheer and entered Persia in 1821. Here and in Syria also, it was somewhat checked by the cold of this winter, but it broke out again in the Spring. In 1823 it ravaged several cities on the Asiatic coast of the Mediterranean, and appeared on the borders of the Caspian Sea and at Astracan, at which place between September 22d and October 9th it destroyed a hundred and forty-four individuals, about two-thirds of those attacked. It ceased in the winter here and in Syria. For seven years it seemed to have reached its western limits.

Meanwhile it was extending from the north of China through Mongolia, and in 1826 was on the borders of Siberia. In 1829 it appeared in Orenburg, a healthy city between two chains of the Ural mountains, in the fifty-first degree of north latitude. In July, 1830, it made its second appearance in Astracan, whence it spread in a northerly direction to Moscow, where it arrived in September or October, and

westward to the shores of the Sea of Azof; thence along the border of the Black Sea to the mouths of the Danube. Ascending this river it visited Hungary and Austria in 1831. Meantime it extended from Moscow to St. Petersburg, thence to the principal ports upon the Baltic. Following the train of the Russian army, it was felt in almost every city in Poland. France and Italy have as yet escaped, but it has gone from Holland to Great Britain, where it first appeared in Sunderland. While we are writing we receive confirmed accounts of more than seventy cases in London, the majority of which have been fatal. There have been in all Great Britain more than 5000 cases during the winter months, and the mortality has been about one-third.

Having thus rapidly traced the progress of the Cholera, we would observe before quitting the subject, that it has been more fatal among the poor, the squalid, the ill-fed, and the intemperate, than among those who were in circumstances more favorable for the preservation of a healthful state of body. In India the number of deaths bore a very great proportion to the number attacked. In the close apartments and overgrown families of Russia, where indulgence in intoxication is the vice of the noble and the peasant, and in Poland, whose inhabitants were suffering at the same time from the horrors and privations of a disastrous war, the mortality was very great. In Syria, on the contrary, which is one of the finest countries in the world, the mortality in proportion to the number attacked was very small; in some cities less than one-sixth. Its spread was not very extensive and its continuance short.

The French writers seem to anticipate, and not without just cause, that if the Cholera enters their territory, the number of victims will not be large.

The next subject is the mode of propagation or transmission. This subject is an important one, and involved in much mystery. Before entering upon it, there are two terms it is necessary to define. These are *contagion* and *infection*.

The first is defined by M. Scoutetten as "the transmission of a disease from one to another by direct or indirect contact." Its agent, he says, is *virus*, and the air is never the medium of the transmission of contagious diseases.

"Infection is the action produced on our system by deleterious particles existing in the air." These are commonly

called *miasms*, which may have their origin from marshes, from the human body, or from vegetable or animal matter in a state of decomposition.

We are willing to admit the above definition of contagion with this addition, "or through the medium of the air, by emanations from the human body in a state of disease." The small-pox, which M. Scourtetten gives as an example of a contagious disease, does not require contact direct or indirect for its reproduction, since this does occur where there has been no communication but through the medium of the air, and must therefore depend on miasm, generated by the person of the sick. Infection differs from contagion in being a more general term, including not only the production of disease, by miasms from the human body, but also by miasms from animal and vegetable decomposition.

M. Scourtetten says, Cholera is not contagious, but infectious, and admits that it is propagated by emanations from choleric patients. He disputes with the contagionist about words only, assenting to all the statements commonly urged in favor of their doctrine. Not so Dr. Granville, who denies *in toto* that Cholera has the power of reproducing itself, and defends his position with much ability. M. Keraudren and his coadjutors think that Cholera is propagated in the epidemic method, which implies some occult cause, coëxcessive in prevalence with the disease itself, and of course having its origin in something common to all the localities which it visits. This we can suppose the atmosphere only to be. We have a familiar example of one, in the common catarrhal fever, usually called influenza, from which we have suffered this very season, in common with many portions of our own country, and of Europe.

At the same time it is admitted by the Report that there are some statements that cannot easily be set aside, which go to prove that Cholera is sometimes transmitted from the person of the sick by miasm; in other words, that under some circumstances favorable for the developement of the disease, it may become contagious. This seems certainly to be the case, and while we express our coincidence in opinion with M. Keraudren, we feel obliged to say, that it is almost impossible at this distance from the theatre of observation to come to a fixed opinion. In the mean time we must affirm, that we do not believe that the fear of contagion need deter

any one from rendering to the choleric patients all the offices of duty or affection.

We leave this subject to say a few words on the proper measures for prevention. These to be sure must depend on the mode in which the disease is transmitted ; and as long as this is unsettled, they must be so too. There are in the French Report, however, some general remarks on this head which are so just that we quote them at length, though we cannot commend the style of the translator.

" In epidemics similar to the one under consideration, the disease itself is perhaps not the most formidable scourge. The moral effect exerted upon the inhabitants, and its dreadful consequences, are not less to be apprehended. If we restrict commercial relations too rigorously by quarantines ; if we drive back populations upon themselves by means of military cordon ; if we agglomerate the sick in lazarettos we will [shall] precipitate the dreadful event, augment the misery, multiply the elements of production and the causes of disease, and create new hot-beds of choleric emanations ; and those measures employed, in all the good faith of *non-savoir*, in order to preserve nations from the disease, would on the contrary have a direct tendency to produce, propagate, and aggravate it. In the numerous epidemics of Cholera which we had occasion to meditate upon, both in Asia and in Europe, patients placed in salubrious situations are visited, touched, moved, changed, dressed, and carefully attended, yet do not communicate the Cholera : physicians proceed to the examination of the bodies after death, dwelling long and minutely in their investigations, yet they have not contracted the disease. Numerous experiments have been made with the view of shedding light upon the manner in which the disease is transmitted ; one has inoculated himself, has even injected into his veins the blood of individuals actually seized and even dying with the Cholera ; some have laid [lain] down in the same beds with choleric and enveloped themselves in the clothes which these patients have just quitted, and others again have gone close to them to inhale their dying breath, yet always without serious consequences.

" Far be from us, however, the rash thought of proscribing useful precautions, and condemning prudent measures. On the contrary, these useful precautions, we call for them, we plead for them with all our energy ; but for the interest of commerce and society, we desire that the endeavour should be to keep these precautions and measures within just limits ; we particularly desire that they should be applied with discretion. Directed by profound knowledge, and especially by the light

of experience, they will profit nations without being a burden to them. To individual calamities, to the eventful misfortune of disease, they would not add the universal calamities, the infallible misfortune of poverty, a scourge more formidable still than the Cholera." pp. 190, 191.

It is too common to speak of sanatory laws and quarantine regulations, as if they could do no harm even should they be of no use; this is certainly a very mistaken notion, and cannot be too strongly opposed. We have but to reflect on the immense number of persons thrown out of employment, by the restrictions upon a single branch of trade or commerce, to see that the want these must produce will go far to balance all the good that might possibly be expected from them. They prepare the way for the disease by placing hundreds and thousands in the very situation in which they are the least able to resist its attack. And what have sanatory laws done for any of the countries in which they have been adopted? "The district of Caen, from the first indications of the disease in the government of Orenburg, adopted the most particular and severe precautions against its propagation. Punishment of death was pronounced against every infraction of the sanatory laws; yet this district, notwithstanding, has been ravaged by the disease."

Dr. Granville says, it is "a fact, that neither Austria nor Russia has been able to keep off from its dominions this supposed intruder and traveller, although they employed for that purpose, with augmented vigor and severity, the very quarantine laws which have all along preserved them from any invasion of the plague,—a disease acknowledged on all hands, and by the *choleric* contagionists as well as others, to be superlatively contagious, infinitely superior in that respect to Cholera."

Much may be done in the way of personal precaution. A strict observance of the rules of health, will avail much to him who understands and follows them. General instructions on this head are often given, and are found in all the works before us. But as what is right and wholesome for one is not so for another, we should condemn all such attempts to regulate the mode of living of a whole community at the approach, or during the prevalence, of a pestilence.

One thing we have to observe upon, however, in the instructions we have generally met with, that they all seem to

presume the body to be in a state of comparative debility at such times, and all recommend "a little wine for the stomach's sake," and a good deal of animal food to fortify the system against the invader. This may be right, but not for all; and we will only oppose to it the experience of Dr. Rush, in his interesting Narrative of his state of body and mind during the prevalence of the Yellow Fever in Philadelphia, in 1793. He says, that he restricted himself to a moderate vegetable diet, leaving off the use of wine entirely, and found the activity of his mind and body wonderfully augmented. This Narrative we recommend to our readers, professional or otherwise, as giving an admirable lesson of the duty of a man and a physician in times when the strongest characters and the stoutest hearts are in danger of being wanting to themselves and to humanity.

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**ART. VI.—*Elements of Technology, taken chiefly from a Course of Lectures delivered at Cambridge, on the Application of the Sciences to the Useful Arts.*** Now published for the Use of Seminaries and Students. By JACOB BIGELOW, M. D., Professor of Materia Medica, and late Rumford Professor in Harvard University, Member of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, &c. Second Edition, with Additions. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins. 1831. 8vo. pp. 521.

DR. BIGELOW'S "Elements of Technology" ranks high among the number of good scientific works to which our country has given birth. It is the work of one perfectly acquainted with the subjects upon which he writes. It is evidently no hasty compilation, but the result of extensive and accurate study. Its arrangement of topics is philosophical; its style neat and agreeable. It is as pleasant as it is rare, to find such thorough knowledge, united with such unpretending modesty, as this book every where displays.

This work is admirably adapted to the purpose specified upon its title-page, "the use of seminaries and students." It should be introduced, as a text-book, into every college and high school. Too many young men enter into active life, profoundly ignorant of many very common and simple things. This want of information, which is made so apparent

when they mingle with practical men, often is, as it should be, a source of mortification. They will find in this "Technology," the means of relieving themselves from their ignorance and its unpleasant consequences.

But this book should not be confined to colleges and students. It contains a rich mass of useful and entertaining knowledge, of knowledge important to every one, knowledge daily wanted, and daily found wanting. It is surprising to see the very general deficiency, among people otherwise well informed, of an acquaintance with the principles and the processes of the useful and the fine arts. How few understand the construction of a watch! How many know not the difference between the mode of engraving on copper and on wood! We have seen intelligent people, who supposed that the ornamental cutting of glass was done with the diamond. This is discreditable. We should know something of the arts, the products of which we are hourly using. The herb of China is not the less fragrant, because we know how the porcelain which contains it is manufactured; a fine painting is not the less beautiful, because we know the manner of preparing and mixing colors; a silk or a calico garment is not the less becoming, because the wearer understands the mode of weaving the one and of printing the other.

Besides that it is a delightful book to read, Bigelow's "Technology" is made, by a full Index, a very convenient book for reference. Not one of its least excellences is, that it gives at the end of each chapter, a list of the best writers on the subjects treated in it; thus marking out to those who would study more closely the application of science to art, a full and well selected course of reading.

This second edition is increased by the addition of about fourteen pages of new matter, partly incorporated in the work, partly given in a short Appendix. There are a few errors of the press on its handsome pages. We should hardly mention this if it were not to show how the addition of a single letter may destroy the sense, and perhaps puzzle the reader; as on page 35:—India rubber "is insoluble in water and in alcohol; but dissolves in either."

- ART. VII.—1. *Oration delivered before the Legislature of Massachusetts, at their Request, on the Hundredth Anniversary of the Birth of George Washington.* By FRANCIS C. GRAY. BOSTON. 1832. 8vo. pp. 77.
2. *An Oration delivered in Newburyport, February, 22, 1832: at the Centennial Celebration of the Birth-day of Washington.* By THOMAS B. FOX. NEWBURYPORT. E. B. & E. L. WHITE. 1832. 8vo. pp. 22.

THE enthusiasm with which the hundredth anniversary of the birth of Washington was celebrated throughout our country is in itself a grateful subject of contemplation to a patriotic mind. It proves that the feeling with which we view the character of him who was emphatically the Father of his country, is something far different from the admiration we give to any other name in history however illustrious. It partakes of the fervor of personal attachment. Every man thinks of Washington as he would of some intimate friend, from whom he had received incalculable favors, and whom death had torn from his arms, but only stamped his image more deeply upon his heart. Though most of the generation who knew him face to face have passed away, yet the events of his life have a vivid distinctness to those who have learned them at second hand; partly because they were in themselves so remarkable, and partly because their effects are so abiding.

In another point of view the strong feeling shown on that occasion is highly gratifying. Quintilian remarks, that an admiration of Cicero is in itself a proof of good taste; so it seems to us that an universal, deep, and ardent admiration of the character of Washington is, alone, an evidence that the body politic is sound at the heart, whatever indications of disease there may be at the surface. We cannot but think that so long as the American people agree in their reverence for the man to whom, under Heaven, we are most indebted for our present political blessings, however intemperate the language used and menacing the attitude assumed by any portion of the country, that no State will in a rash moment, so far depart from the principles acted upon during his life and with much affectionate earnestness urged upon us in his "Farewell Address," as to dismember the Union, and snap that

golden chain of fellowship which has hitherto bound us together into so graceful a fabric. We think that some public demonstrations should be shown to the memory of Washington at least once in twenty-five or thirty years. It is important, that every generation should be thus led to meditate upon his wonderful character, that the gifted in the land should be called to portray it in the most lively colors, and to show how the lapse of time enhances its value as a model for imitation, and how the flight of centuries extends and magnifies the blessings which he was the means of first creating. It is but one step from admiration to imitation. Plato says, that if we could behold the sensible form of virtue, we should be so enamoured of her as to forget every thing else ; and certainly the annals of profane history present no example which approximates nearer to perfect excellence, than that displayed in the life of George Washington.

The Oration by Mr. Gray is worthy of the occasion which called it forth and of the author's reputation. We do not pretend to give an abstract of it, because of all productions an oration can least bear to be thus anatomized. The distinguishing characteristics of Washington are presented to our view in language of great simplicity and beauty, and with an animation and eloquence which nothing but a sincere admiration of his subject could communicate. In one respect, he has been very successful ; in illustrating the traits of his character by the prominent actions of his life. In doing this, he has not wearied us by the repetition of a thrice-told tale, but has contrived to give an air of novelty to the events themselves by the application he makes of them. By thus connecting principles with conduct, we are thoroughly impressed with the value of the former, and remember the latter more distinctly. Mr. Gray has not confined himself to the life and character of Washington alone, but occasionally is led aside to the consideration of subjects of kindred interest, connected with the growth and prospects of our country, and the peculiar nature and operation of our institutions. That he has digressed rather too much is the only objection we could make to his Oration, and that is no objection to it as a production to be read. But it must be considered as a blemish when we recollect that it was written for the purpose of being delivered. It is generally observable that our orators do not seem to recollect when they ascend the pulpit,

that there is a point beyond which the most dazzling eloquence will not carry the patient attention of an audience. The incidental topics, however, which Mr. Gray treats, are such as are naturally suggested by the subject, and are handled in a very interesting manner. The remarks on the representative system, beginning on the fifty-third page, are very excellent and striking.

We have not room to introduce any portions of Mr. Gray's *Oration* of sufficient length to illustrate the purity of taste and manly simplicity of style, with which the whole is written ; qualities alike worthy to be recorded, and to be imitated on similar occasions.

Mr. Fox's *Oration* is a beautiful performance, full of that honest glow and fervor of feeling which the contemplation of such a character as that of Washington cannot fail of producing in the mind of a young man. He does not attempt any sketch of his life, nor any minute enumeration of all his qualities, but selects and dwells upon those peculiar traits which give him his individuality and distinguish him from the common herd of great men, so called. He shows the foundations of his greatness to be laid in unfaltering principle, in self-government and self-knowledge, in consistency, in firmness, and in that deep religious confidence, which made him feel, when his enemies seemed about to crush him at once, the sentiment expressed by Lord Burleigh, when he heard of the mighty preparations made by the Spaniards to invade England : "They shall do no more than God will suffer them." Thus, his memorable actions were not the spasmodic efforts of a mind in a state of preternatural excitement, but the simple and necessary results of its ordinary workings. In Lord Bacon's sense of the word, he was thrice-great ; for he was born great, he achieved greatness, and he had greatness thrust upon him. From the consideration of the character of Washington, Mr. Fox passes, by a natural transition, to the quality which so remarkably distinguished him, his love of country ; and in a strain of great beauty and feeling dwells upon the duties of the true patriot and the necessity of his making his attachment to his native soil a principle and not merely an instinct. He enforces his remarks by an application to our own case, speaks of the peculiarities of our system, of some of the dangers that grow out of it, and the solemn responsibility which presses upon us all in conse-

quence. He treats of these subjects with the eloquence which comes from feeling, and which proves that he has that patriotism which he describes.

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**ART. VIII.—Report of Commissioners appointed under a Resolve of the Legislature of Massachusetts to superintend the Erection of a Lunatic Hospital at Worcester, and to Report a System of Discipline and Government for the same. Made January 4, 1832. Boston. Dutton & Wentworth. 8vo. pp. 32.**

THE Legislature of 1829 and 1830 appropriated the sum of thirty thousand dollars for the erection of a Lunatic Hospital of sufficient dimensions to accommodate a Superintendent and one hundred and twenty patients. We learn from the highly interesting Report before us, that the walls of an edifice for this purpose have been erected on a beautiful eminence in the village of Worcester, two hundred and fifty-six feet in length, consisting of a centre four stories high, seventy-six feet long, and forty feet wide, and two wings, on the same line, three stories high, and each ninety feet long and thirty-six wide. The building (of which a lithographic drawing is prefixed to the Report) is a huge pile of brick, without pretensions to architectural beauty, plain to a fault. From its commanding position, however, it is sure to arrest, if it does not charm, the eye of the traveller as he wends his way through that portion of the valley of the Blackstone, or traverses the handsome streets of the village in which it stands. Judging from the minute description given in the Report, as well as from some personal observation, we are satisfied that the arrangements of the interior, which are yet incomplete, will be extremely judicious, and well calculated to answer the purposes of the institution.

The laws of this Commonwealth authorize the commitment to prison of lunatics who in the opinion of two magistrates may be judged "dangerous to the peace or safety of the good people." Selectmen of towns are also required to provide for the safe keeping of insane persons who are paupers; and it is "the common practice of many towns to make private contracts with the keepers of jails and houses of correction to take such persons at a low rate and imprison

them in some of their unoccupied cells, where no person has been held responsible for their treatment, nor has the law delegated authority to any one to examine into their condition." There is still another class of lunatics in the community, comprising those who are not so furiously mad as to be liable to imprisonment. It does not appear from the Report what proportion of the whole number each of the three classes constitutes; but from returns made in 1829, from towns embracing less than half the population of the state, it was ascertained that one hundred and sixty-one lunatics were in actual confinement, making the number of more than *three hundred and twenty-two*, at the same rate, in the whole Commonwealth. It is said to be a "source of great complaint with the sheriffs and jailors that they must receive such persons, because they have no suitable accommodations for them."

Details of the condition in which imprisoned lunatics have been found in this State, are cited from a Report of the Prison Discipline Society, some of which are unutterably loathsome and revolting. In extenuation of the rigorous (not to say brutal) treatment of insane persons in jails and houses of correction, the Commissioners say, that the proper mode of treatment is of recent discovery. "A few individuals justly entitled to a conspicuous station among the benefactors of their race, have exploded the barbarous doctrine that cruelty is the proper antidote to madness, and have discovered that skill, mildness, and self-devotion to the welfare of the insane, are the only efficacious means for their restoration." p. 20. This principle has been carried into so successful operation at the Connecticut Retreat for the Insane, that a late Report of the Visitors shows a ratio of recoveries in the *old cases* equal to twenty-six per cent., and out of twenty-four recent cases, twenty-two recovered. The necessity and expediency of a different system of management on this subject in our Commonwealth, are thus strikingly shown. Were there no hope of recovering the victims of this dreadful malady, a change would still be demanded on the score of humanity. And when to this consideration is added the certainty of a restoration in a large majority of cases, under a mild and proper treatment, the propriety of establishing a hospital for this purpose, at almost any expense, cannot be doubted for a moment.

The actual expense of the insane population to the state for many years past, it is estimated, has averaged forty thousand dollars annually. As to the mode of defraying the charges of the Hospital, the Commissioners recommend that there be no alteration in the present law in relation to those confined in houses of correction, which requires, (as we find by a reference to the statute,) that the persons committed be kept at their own expense, if they have estate, otherwise at the charge of the persons or towns who would have been liable, had they not been committed. The only change recommended by the Commissioners is, that lunatics heretofore required to be imprisoned under the direction of the State, be hereafter committed to the Hospital at Worcester; and that those now so confined be removed to the Hospital as soon as it is ready for their reception. They also recommend that the insane poor be allowed the benefit of the hospital at the least possible expense, that all classes may be permitted to enjoy advantages now open only to persons possessing pecuniary means. The expense being thus reduced, towns will doubtless be induced to place their pauper lunatics there, instead of crowding them into the cells of prisons, or disposing of the care of them to the lowest bidder.

We cannot close this brief notice without cordially commending this sensible and well-written Report (which, we understand, is from the pen of Mr. Mann, the Chairman of the Commissioners,) to general perusal, with the hope that the valuable information and excellent views it contains, in relation to a subject of great public interest, may lead to a just appreciation of the practical utility of the institution about to be established. We would recommend a cheap edition of the Report for extensive circulation, at least of those parts of it which have a general bearing, should it be thought unnecessary to republish the whole.

**ART. IX.—*Remarks on the Mineralogy and Geology of the Peninsula of Nova Scotia, accompanied by a Colored Map, illustrative of the Structure of the Country, and by several Views of its Scenery.*** By CHARLES T. JACKSON and FRANCIS ALGER. Cambridge. E. W. Metcalf & Co. 1832. 4to. pp. 116.

THIS is a feast. We have been professionally called from it divers times, yet we have always returned to it with a keen appetite. This is good proof how well the feast is served up. We will not say "got up," for there is no "getting up" about it. This volume is published separately from the "Memoirs of the American Academy," in which it is to appear. It is truly a delightful book to the mineralogist and geologist. It contains the results of the observations of two young men, on a field peculiarly their own,—a field which they began to clear and cultivate as early as 1827, when they gave us some account of its hidden treasures. The present work contains their labors in 1829, incorporated with what they had before presented to us in the "Journal of Science." They have examined accurately, and described minutely, a great mass of facts; and have avowed honestly, fearlessly, but very modestly their opinions on some theoretic points in geology.

But this sketch is not a mere dry detail of mineralogical and geological facts, interesting only to those initiated in these sciences; there is to be sure, no sweet discourse of birds to lure us onward, but our enterprising travellers take us on board their little vessel, specially chartered for our accommodation, and we are piloted around the rocky shores of Acadia; now threading the narrow passes among islands and rocky columns, between which the tumultuous tide rushes like a whirlpool; and now riding on the broad bosom of secluded basins, embayed by rocks, the great sea-wall of Nature, rising in immense perpendicular sheets from the ocean. We visit the numerous capes, towering high, like the Giant's Causeway, with basaltic columns, and gaze on scenery so wildly magnificent, that we almost forget, in the sublimity of our emotions, that the professed object of our journey relates to earth. We are led over the Province, and visit its mines of copper and iron and coal; in the last of which, we

all feel a warm interest, and know how profitable it must be to be holders of the stock, if not stockholders in the mines. We are shown immense quarries of limestone and plaster, and are carried to great rocky beds, and learn how to turn out grindstones. We mention these things for the consolation of our agricultural and manufacturing friends. We are quite sure, that our female readers will be delighted to learn that Nova Scotia, one of the ends of the earth, is Nature's great jewel-shop ; teeming with agates and cornelian and chalcedony, beautifully spotted like an "onyx eye," and opal, and Scotch pebble, jasper, and rock-crystal of the hue of the topaz, and beautiful amethyst, and brilliant jet : we trust, therefore, that they will look into the work before us, as into a drawer of precious stones. We commend this work to the favorable notice of all classes. But as all cannot, and some will not, follow our advice, we shall just give such unfortunate persons a glimpse of the work ; and whilst we confer thus a favor on them, we may have an opportunity of noticing some things which fall under our hammer, not as mineralogists, but as reviewers. We hope that our authors, if they chance to meet with us, will select us as "cabinet specimens" of our class, and not arrange us as "amorphous varieties" ; or if they assign us a place among the great "formations" of Reviewers, we trust we shall not be found in "an unconformable or *over lying* position." We are not anxious about our origin. Authors generally agree, that it is "Plutonic."

The peninsula of Nova Scotia is marked by three ranges of hills, which divide its geology into three distinct features. Some of these hills are called mountains, though their elevation does not exceed five hundred feet. The three features in the geology of the Province, are trap, sandstone, and clay-slate. These few formations render the geology of the region remarkably simple. The trap constitutes the North Mountain range, which extends with but one interruption, about a hundred and thirty miles in a direction northeast and southwest, gently curving towards the Bay of Fundy, and filling the space between that bay and Annapolis river. It forms, therefore, the north-western coast of the Province, and its lofty mural precipices present their broad front to the sea, an impregnable barrier against its violence. The trap is sometimes amorphous, sometimes columnar. The prismatic columns present three, five, seven, and nine sides. In

some places, as at Isle Haute, the colonnades of trap rise in hexagonal shafts from fifty to a hundred feet above the surface of the water; and these are divided horizontally into blocks, sometimes a foot, but usually less, in diameter, and three times their diameter in length, resting on one another by perfectly flat surfaces. The columns, too, are sometimes curved or twisted in groups.

In no place did our authors observe those articulations of the trappian columns, which are their distinguishing feature in some other localities. At Little River valley, near Digby Neck, the columns present somewhat of the appearance of those of the Giant's Causeway in Ireland; but even here, the columns are imperfectly articulated; and our authors think that the imperfect cup and ball socket may have been produced by the motion of the horizontally broken columns on each other, caused by the action of the sea-water. It appears too, from their observations, that ordinary causes can produce regular concavities in the top of the shafts of trap. The Nova Scotia trap, then, wants some of the characters of genuine basalt which are present in the most celebrated European localities. In its internal structure the trap of Nova Scotia agrees with that from the Hebrides; and in the opinion of our authors is unquestionably basalt. They, however, prefer to call it "columnar trap," leaving, as they modestly say, "the question of its identity with the basalt of Ireland, to be decided by those better able to do it than ourselves." There is another feature in the trap of this Province, pointed out as differing remarkably from the basalt of the Giant's Causeway and the trap of Europe, as noticed by Daubeny; viz. that its breadth is altogether disproportionate to its length. It is about a hundred and thirty miles long, and never exceeds three miles in breadth. It seems to be an immense dyke, "thrown up by one sudden and violent eruption from the unfathomable depths of the Bay of Fundy." It will be seen from this quotation, that our authors adopt the igneous origin of trap. They have added much to our stock of facts on this interesting question. Visiting the Province with notions rather verging to Werner's theory, they became, on the trap formation, disciples of Hutton; and still keeping their minds open to truth, they left the shores of Nova Scotia, impressed, as every honest inquirer has ever been, with the belief that the judicious union of the Neptunian and Plutonic

theories accounts satisfactorily for the present appearances of our earth's surface.

The trap formation passes into trap-tuff, and this into amygdaloid, which is succeeded by sandstone alternating with shale. Specimens were collected amply illustrating the opinion of Messrs. Jackson and Alger, that shale, red sandstone, and compact trap concur to form trap-tuff composed of angular or rounded fragments of the three rocks, which passes by consecutive gradations into perfect amygdaloid, trap-tuff being an intermediate state, necessary to its formation. This opinion is abundantly fortified by their observations. Wherever the junction of shale, red sandstone, and trap occurred, there trap-tuff and amygdaloid were found; and they were not found where this junction did not occur. At Tower Hill nature seems to have tried "her 'prentice hand" to make amygdaloid out of shale and sandstone only. She has succeeded so well that she has ventured to put the imitated in the place of the genuine amygdaloid in relation to trap. But the counterfeit is easily detected; for she has filled the cavities of the amygdaloid not with zeolite, but with gypsum, which abounds in the sandstone. We have not room to mention the numerous rare and interesting minerals found in the trap formation. We are quite of our authors' belief, "that it is one of the most extensive and fruitful fields for mineralogical and geological research which the known world presents." Among the great variety of minerals which they collected, there is one which may possibly prove to be a new species; but our authors wait patiently the result of the chemical analysis of this, by their friend Mr. Hayes. We are glad it has fallen into such good hands. If it fortunately should prove to be a new species, the delight of the discoverers can be equalled only by that with which they look upon the gigantic crystal of "Scottish topaz," found by them near Paradise river; a crystal weighing nearly a hundred pounds, a foot in diameter, and one of whose acuminating planes is twelve inches long. Its splendid display of colors, when the interior is illuminated by strong transmitted light, changing the whole substance into a beautiful transparency, reflecting the varied tints of topaz-yellow and clove-brown, is described with such heart-leaping enthusiasm, that we are not at all surprised at the declaration of our authors, "that it is the noblest production which the country has afforded" them.

*Sandstone*, with slate, forms moderately elevated and rounded hills in Cumberland and part of Hants counties, extending from the Basin of Mines, northerly to the gulf of St. Lawrence, and eastwardly to Sidney county,—embracing the Districts of Colchester and Pictou, and thus forming a large portion of the Province. Its appearance changes very much with its situation, being always of a *tile-red* color when near the trap.

The sandstone is itself quarried for grindstones. The best of these are procured at South Joggins, and are wrought on the shore of Cumberland Bay. The deeper dug, the better the stone. Hence a few layers are removed, which make an inferior article; and then, as low down as possible, the better sort are obtained. The workmen frequently meet in cutting the stone with "bull's eyes," so termed,—hard, rounded nodules from one to ten inches in diameter, more compact, and having less argillaceous cement than the surrounding stone. Wherever these "evil eyes" occur, the stone is condemned as useless.

But the sandstone is not only itself a valuable rock; it contains within its bosom rich treasures of plaster, lime, coal, copper, and salt.

Immense beds of plaster occur in the sandstone. Halliburton, in his "History of Nova Scotia," says, that 100,000 tons are annually shipped to the United States. These beds of the plaster are situated all round the shores of the Mines' Basin, and at several places along the coast of the gulf of St. Lawrence. The largest are at Windsor, and on the banks of the Maran river. Our authors remark, that though plaster is highly valued in the United States as a manure, yet its native hills are not clothed with such luxuriant vegetation as those where its presence is entirely wanting.

Salt-springs occur at various places bordering on the Gulf of St. Lawrence, the richest of which are situated near the river Philip. These have yielded great quantities of salt, by evaporating their briny waters; though we infer from the remarks of our authors, that they are now abandoned. No rock-salt has been discovered in their vicinity, nor has the sand-rock any perceptible salt taste. These facts are important. They enable us to place the sand-rock in the same class, in the opinion of the authors, with that of western New York, "with the red marle of Connybeare and Phillips,

which includes the salt mines of England and Poland," and with that of Connecticut and Hudson rivers.

Very important beds of coal, highly bituminous, occur in the village of New Glasgow, near East river. The coal is included between strata of sandstone, covered by decayed blackish shale. In its character it approaches the Newcastle coal. The mining operations are now extensively conducted, and vast quantities of this fuel are shipped to the United States. It is the Pictou coal of our markets. The sandstone embraces all the coal of Nova Scotia ; and probably this same formation, extending into the Province of New Brunswick, embraces the coal measures recently discovered on the Grand Lake, in the interior parts of that Province, and has its traces even west of the river St. John. We regard every fact relating to the coal measures in North America as of great importance, and we hope that our authors will not lose sight of this interesting subject in their future researches. We should have been much pleased if their observations had been more extended in Nova Scotia. The sandstone contains one other important mineral, namely, copper, found in beds between the strata, near Carriboo river, in the township of New Philadelphia, where this river empties itself into the gulf of St. Lawrence. Masses of vitreous copper ore, invested with delicate fibres of blue and green carbonate of the metals, occur at this locality. This is the richest of all the ores of copper. The miners from Cornwall who were exploring the mine, called the ore *grey copper*. Messrs. Jackson and Alger analysed it, and found it to be the *vitreous copper*, an ore much more valuable than *grey*. These gentlemen took Klaproth's analysis of the Siberian vitreous copper, as the model for conducting their analysis, and seem to have obtained different results, at which they appear somewhat surprised. Now we are surprised, that, having taken Klaproth for their guide, they did not follow his steps exactly. They have given a full detail of their *modus operandi*, which we have read and carefully compared with Klaproth's. We suggest to our authors a repetition of the process. Notwithstanding their declaration, that on repeating it they could "discover no source of fallacy," we are inclined to believe that there are two sources of fallacy ; one relating to the whole process of Klaproth, which gave him incorrect results, and for which our authors are not re-

sponsible; the other source of fallacy is in their deviation from this process, for which they are responsible. Their analysis fails in being a fair comparative process with Klaproth's; and hence if they failed in obtaining the same results, it does not follow that the Nova Scotia ore differs from the Siberian. Klaproth's process was fallacious, because the chlorine evolved by dropping nitric acid into muriatic, in which the copper ore was boiling, converts a portion of its sulphur into sulphuric acid, and because it is impossible to separate copper from a solution by iron, without precipitating some of the carbon contained in the iron; besides, the precipitate thus obtained will be partially oxydated in drying. Nor can iron be separated from copper by ammonia, without precipitating a notable quantity of copper, which no excess of ammonia will dissolve. Klaproth dissolved his ore, as above stated, then collected the insoluble portion, which he treated a *second time* as he had the ore. The precipitate was then collected and dried; its weight amounted to 19.25 per cent., which, being ignited, left a residuum equal to 0.75 per cent., which he called *silex*. We are inclined, from its quantity, to think it was in part metallic oxyde. Messrs. Jackson and Alger dissolved their ore as Klaproth did, *but they collected the insoluble portion without a second digestion, and washed it with dilute nitric acid*, adding the washing to the filtered solution, *and then proceeded at once to dry and weigh the precipitate*, which was found to amount to 19 per cent., which being ignited left a residuum equal to 1 per cent., which they called *undissolved ore*, and *treated it as such, digesting it in nitro-muriatic acid*, and adding this to the filtered solution. We have italicized the portions wherein they departed from Klaproth. It is evident, that they estimated the sulphur too low, having one per cent. of the ore undissolved, when that result was obtained. In the after treatment of this portion, the washing with dilute nitric acid would evolve sulphuretted hydrogen, and thus the sulphur would escape in part; and when the undissolved portion was digested in nitro-muriatic acid, the sulphur in it became sulphuric acid. Hence their process ought to give, as in fact it did give, less sulphur than Klaproth obtained, both parties obtaining too little, not only of sulphur, but of copper, and too much iron. But our authors say, that they acidulated their ammoniated solution, and precipitated the copper, which

within a trifling fraction equalled that which they had obtained before. We do not consider this decisive of the correctness of the first result; and if this loss recurred on a repetition of the process, we are surprised that they did not suspect some source of fallacy. The loss was probably equal to all the copper precipitated with the iron, in separating this metal by ammonia. We believe, however, that the analysis of our authors gives the most accurate results, as respects the copper, and doubtless if they had analysed the Siberian ore, it would have given them the same results as the ore of Nova Scotia; or if this had been tested by Klaproth, he would have confirmed his own results; each following his own process. But with the deviation from Klaproth, there is a wonderful uniformity in the two analyses.

	Klaproth.	Jackson and Alger.
Iron . . .	2.25	. . . 2.50
Sulphur . . .	18.50	. . . 18.
Copper . . .	78.50	. . . 79.50
Silex . . .	.75	
	100.00	100.00

These differences, we think, are easily accounted for, as we have above shown. We have not mentioned these things to cavil; the difference is trifling, and is therefore in our view of so much the more consequence. We are no believers in the practical value, to the refiner, of these minute analyses; but as carrying the philosophy of chemistry, definite proportions, and atomic combinations into the mineral kingdom, we think them to be of immense importance, and of inestimable value to science. Where the differences are so small, they give us confidence in the accuracy of the several persons who have been engaged in the analysis. We doubt not that if our authors will analyse both ores, on more correct principles, that the results will lead them to conclude that they are similar atomic combinations of copper and iron and sulphur. We advise them, however, to regard "trifling losses" as filings of gold. We are very uncompromising on this subject.

The last of the great formations of Nova Scotia is *Clay-slate*, of which the South Mountain range is composed, and which, stretching from Pictou District on the east to the

opposite western coast, covers nearly one half of the Province, presenting every where a uniform geological character. The direction of the strata is north, sixty degrees east, and the dip fifty or sixty degrees. This formation frequently alternates with quartz rock, which seems to have been mistaken by some other observers in this region for primitive trap. The slate is extensively quarried at Rawdon, both for writing and for roofing slate, and in other places for building materials. Dykes of trap porphyry interrupt the strata of slate in two places, cutting them at right angles, and completely intercepting a great bed of iron ore, which runs from one extremity of the slate formation to the other, continuous and parallel with its strata. This is the most interesting feature in the slate formation. The ore bed is from ten to sixteen feet wide, and shows a very remarkable difference in its character, accordingly as it approaches or recedes from the trap formation. At Pictou, remote from trap, it is in the state of peroxide, neither metallic in lustre nor magnetic, yielding about fifty per cent. of metal. At Clement's mine, the western terminus of the bed, and nearer the trap, the ore is in the state of protoxide, glistening with metallic lustre ; and it is highly magnetic, yielding in the furnace somewhat less than sixty-five per cent. of strong, soft iron. Our authors discuss the question relating to these different states of the ore. Why is it a peroxide and non-magnetic at Pictou, and a magnetic protoxide at Clement's ? They find their answer in heat ; this has caused the variation of character, and they find the source of this heat in the igneous origin of trap. We must refer our readers to the work itself for our authors' proof of the truth of their theory. To us it appears satisfactory. The argument drawn from the state of the organic remains is sound and ingenious. Our limits will allow us only to say, that organic remains abound in the slate and in the ore-bed of iron. Both contain beautifully perfect remains of shells. In some spots bivalves only of the genus anomia are found in the ore, whilst, in others, this same bed contains encrinites, ammonites, and trilobites. The coal measures abound in the vegetable remains common to that formation, and numerous remains of culmiferous plants, some of which are of gigantic size, occur in the grindstone quarries. To conclude, we would observe that the work is accompanied with an excellent colored Geological Map of the Province,

and adorned with several well executed lithographic views of its romantic and picturesque scenery ; and these are so colored as to illustrate many features in its geological history.

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**ART. X.—*Monthly American Journal of Geology and Natural Science.*** Conducted by G. W. FEATHERSTONHAUGH, Esq. No. IX. Philadelphia, March, 1832.

WE are glad to find that our fears as to the success of this valuable Journal are dispelled by the appearance of the ninth number. The delay in the publication of this number is accounted for by the failure of the former publisher. We trust that the able and accomplished editor will have no cause to regret that he has determined to finish the volume at his own expense.

Of the ultimate success of the work there can be little doubt, if it continues to exhibit the science and independence which now distinguish it. The reputation of Mr. Featherstonhaugh, as a man of science and letters has been long established both in this country and in Europe. The articles from the pen of the editor are written with purity and force, and it may be confidently anticipated that unimportant and incorrect communications will not be admitted, nor the pages of the Journal be disfigured by speculations discreditable to American science.

"The leading character of this work is geological, and it may be considered as devoted to the exposition of the geology and natural history of this continent ; and to elementary instruction, concerning the principles and details of these important branches of knowledge." In this it differs from the "American Journal of Science and Arts," which is "a repository for papers of every description."

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**ART. XI.—*First Book of the Fine and Useful Arts, for the Use of Schools and Lyceums.*** Compiled by MARSHALL S. PERRY, M. D. Boston. Carter & Hendee. 1832. 12mo. pp. 126.

THIS is a pleasing exception to the great number of publications "for Schools and Lyceums," which are daily put

forth. With a modesty somewhat rare in these works, it is announced as a compilation; perhaps it might with more propriety have been entitled an Abridgment of Dr. Bigelow's "Technology." It will be found a convenient and useful school-book.

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**ART. XII.—*Truth, a Gift for Scribblers.*** Second Edition, with Additions and Emendations. By W. J. SNELLING. Boston. B. B. Mussey. 1832. 18mo. pp. 72.

THIS work is intended as a satire upon American poets, with the exception of a few, of whom it contains what are meant for panegyrics. Mr. Snelling has been "disgusted by newspaper puffs of would-be poets," and has resolved to extirpate the race.

The author evidently thinks that he has written a very smart poem. He shows nothing of the timidity of one who entertains any doubt of his powers as a poet and a satirist. He speaks of using the weapons of satire, in full confidence that he is to make most deadly havoc in the ranks of the worshippers of the Muses; he seems to have an amiable consciousness of being most sarcastically severe; talks of acknowledging ability where he finds it, with a modest reliance on his power of allotting to each his just measure of talent; and of blasting the literary hopes of a writer, as if this must be the certain effect of the breath of his sarcasm. "Now have I shot my shafts"—"Many have suffered"—"I've driven the scalpel deeply"—and the like.

Mr. Snelling evidently has at command the whole vocabulary of vituperation. "Dunce—vermin—booby—stupid—paltry—jackdaw—blackguard—twaddling"—are some of the epithets which he showers upon the objects of his satire. The application of terms like these to gentlemen whose greatest fault is the having published verses which do not suit his pure and classical taste, is no mark either of good sense or of good manners. Any body can call names.

We find little in Mr. Snelling's book which shows him to be a good judge of poetry, and much that proves the contrary. Some of the noblest of our poets he praises; all the meanest he satirizes; but it required no great acuteness to do this; he has simply followed the voice of public opinion.

Upon the greater part of those who occupy the middle place — the debatable ground of Parnassus, he has poured a torrent of promiscuous, undistinguishing abuse ; thus showing a want of discrimination, which is the great defect in the book considered as a work of criticism, and which convinces us that he has little taste and judgment in the affairs of the Muses. Of about fifty authors mentioned by name, four-fifths are made the objects of sarcasm. Hardly any distinction is made between them ; as poets, all are censured ; the only difference in their treatment consists in the application of personally offensive language to some, and not to others. Thus we can see little difference between the sentence of condemnation passed upon the poetry of Dana, Willis, Pierpont, and Ware, and that pronounced upon the verses of Fairfield, Morris, Finn, and Dawes.

This want of discrimination is so palpable throughout, that it would be a tedious and useless task to point out the particular cases in which gross injustice has been done. We will confine ourselves to a single instance. After some verses in ridicule of Allston's "Sylphs of the Seasons," Mr. Snelling says, in a note, "It would be hard to speak as ill of it as it deserves." Can he have read the poem ? If he have not, we lament his want of honesty ; if he have, we pity his want of taste. The "Sylphs" is a poem less known than it deserves to be ; it is full of poetic richness and purity and beauty. We will venture, in proof of our assertion, to quote a short passage from it, though but an imperfect specimen of the poem.

" And now, in accents deep and low,  
Like voice of fondly-cherished woe,  
The Sylph of Autumn sad :  
Though I may not of raptures sing,  
That graced the gentle song of Spring,  
Like Summer, playful pleasures bring,  
Thy youthful heart to glad ;

" Yet still may I in hope aspire  
Thy heart to touch with chaster fire  
And purifying love :  
For I with vision high and holy,  
And spell of quick'ning melancholy,  
Thy soul from sublunary folly  
First raised to worlds above.

\* \* \*

“ ‘ ‘ T was I, when thou, subdued by woe,  
 Didst watch the leaves descending slow,  
 To each a moral gave,  
 And as they moved in mournful train,  
 With rustling sound, along the plain,  
 Taught them to sing a seraph’s strain  
 Of peace within the grave.

“ ‘ ‘ And then, upraised thy streaming eye,  
 I met thee in the western sky  
 In pomp of evening cloud ;  
 That, while with varying form it roll’d,  
 Some wizard’s castle seemed of gold,  
 And now a crimsoned knight of old  
 Or king in purple proud.

“ ‘ ‘ And last, as sunk the setting sun,  
 And Evening with her shadows dun  
 The gorgeous pageant past,  
 ’ T was then of life a mimic show,  
 Of human grandeur here below,  
 Which thus beneath the fatal blow  
 Of Death must fall at last.

“ ‘ ‘ Oh, then with what aspiring gaze  
 Didst thou thy tranced vision raise  
 To yonder orbs on high,  
 And think how wondrous, how sublime,  
 ’ T were upwards to their spheres to climb,  
 And live, beyond the reach of time,  
 Child of Eternity.’ ”

And these are verses of which “ it would be hard to speak as ill as they deserve.”

In the Notes to “ Truth,” we meet with occasional quotations from Juvenal and Horace. They have somewhat of the air of being looked out for the occasion ; but they are generally so ill applied, that we cannot put a more charitable construction upon their use, than to suppose them introduced for the purpose of showing that the author has read the Roman satirists. We would recommend to him a little more intimate acquaintance with the spirit of those masters of invective. He will learn from them that vulgarity is a poor substitute for wit, and that scurrility is not synonymous with satire.

From one who takes it upon himself to censure others, we

feel that we have some right to expect a degree of freedom from faults ; a certain portion of excellence. But we cannot allow Mr. Snelling much poetical merit. We find little harmony in his versification, little beauty in his expressions, much affectation in his style. There is a sort of rawness in his numbers, and the current of his verse seems to "flow muddily along." If we add to this the coarseness of the raillery, and the entire want of delicacy in the strains of compliment, we shall find but little reason to place this poem high among the productions of the satiric muse.

Let us look at a few examples, which will show the general tone and character of the whole.

To the author of some poetical pieces of great beauty, a man of pure and correct taste in poetry, are applied the following elegant couplets.

"Prime Parson, but poor poet ; sells, in short,  
Soup for the alms-house, at a cent a quart :"

"Yet be no poet ; be advised by me ;  
Stick to thy pulpit ; let the Muses be."

Against one who is regarded by some as the first, by all as among the first, of American poets, is directed this keen and exquisite raillery :

"And croaking Dana strains his screech-owl throat."

We may take the following remarks on Willis, as a favorable specimen of the melodious versification, refined wit, and energetic sarcasm which prevail throughout the poem.

"Oh what a tip-top tailor thus was spoiled !  
Had he but sat cross-legged, what Snip had moiled  
To so much purpose ? He had cabbaged then  
As now, and clipped the cloth of better men :  
No goose had hissed like his ; his want of skill  
Had made our coats and breeches look as ill  
As now it does mere paper ; then his shears  
Had spared old authors, and his voice our ears." p. 34.

On page 37, we have some verses upon the late T. G. C. Brainard. We would call the attention of our readers to the modesty displayed in these lines ;

"Be *mine* the task to make fresh roses bloom,  
And shed *undying* fragrance on thy tomb :"

and to the harmony and finish of the following ;

" Hard, hard thy lot, and great the country's shame  
That let such offspring die without his fame.  
He pin'd to see the buds his brow had deck'd,  
Nipt by the bitter blight of cold neglect."

Indeed, the author's grace in panegyric is upon the same level with his delicacy in satire. How much originality and beauty in this compliment to Bryant !

" He writes no line his friends could wish effaced."

How much force is given to the following tribute of praise, by the artful and poetical repetition of the negative !

——— " the Muses' youngest son,  
Equalled by few, surpassed by none, *not one!* "

We do not refuse to Mr. Snelling all credit for ability as a writer. We deny him not the merit of having said a few smart things. He has, perhaps justly, a reputation for considerable talent. We are sorry that he should have prostituted it by so weak an attempt at satire. We think he will yet regret having rudely wounded the feelings of some, and unjustly denied their due merit to others. "Truth" may have a temporary notoriety, but will soon be forgotten. It is an ephemeral production, without strength to support a long existence. It will be a literal refutation of the ancient motto, " *Magna est veritas et prævalebit.*"

We are led by reading this book, to make a single remark upon the state of poetry among us. We do not wish to deny that it is a fair subject of satire. It is lamentable to behold the quantities of rubbish which are scattered from the press under the name of poetry. In all other pursuits it is thought necessary that a man should have some shadow of a pretension to a slight knowledge of what he attempts to do. Poetry alone seems to be an exception to this rule. But if satire is to be employed against the aspirants to the name of poet, let it be satire of a generous kind ; let it be just and discriminating ; let not the satirist think himself freed from the common obligations to civility and decency ; let him not condescend to petty scurrility and personal abuse ; let his shafts fall upon the writer, and not upon the man ; let his weapons be sharp and bright and pointed, but tempered by courteousness, and guided by good taste.

But if we are ever to have a literature of which we may be proud, it will not be by encouraging mediocrity, or by sparing the feelings of sensitive incapacity. If men will write poetry, they should know that they must write well, in order to escape with impunity, and that those only should be suffered to enjoy the sacred name of poets now, whom posterity will save from oblivion.

**ART. XIII.—*Secrecy, a Poem, pronounced at the Installation of the Officers of the Boston Encampment of Knights Templars. February 28, 1832.* By THOMAS POWER. Boston. Moore & Sevey. 1832. 12mo. pp. 24.**

WE must thank Mr. Power for informing us, on the title-page, and in the following verses,

“Under indulgence let our subject be,  
In human life, the worth of secrecy,”

what the subject of his poem is; otherwise, after having read his twenty-four pages of verse, if we had been asked, “What is this poem about?” — we should have answered as one of our acquaintance once answered a similar question,—“About three hundred and fifty couplets.”

Mr. Power, according to an ancient custom, little heeded by modern readers,

“Invokes the mercy of each critic eye.”

Writers have no such immunities now-a-days, since they have become too plenty to be treated with marked ceremony, and are regarded much like people of other callings. We should think it strange if a shcemaker, upon bringing us a pair of boots, should say, “Sir, I fear these boots are very badly made; the stock is poor, and the sewing weak; but I beg that, if you do not like them, you would say nothing about the matter.”

Mr. Power deserves credit, such as it is, for the well-balanced mechanism of the rhythm, and the general exactness of the rhyme, throughout his poem; and if we had remembered nothing of Pope but his tuneful numbers, we might have risen from “Secrecy,” thinking ourselves lulled into vacuity by the unchanging melody of that poet. But

there is no more merit in such versification, than in an ear which can distinguish the notes of the gamut. "I'll rhyme you so eight years together, dinners, and suppers, and sleeping hours excepted."

We should add, however, that Mr. Power rouses us here and there by the abrupt introduction of lyric versification; as when, for instance, a sudden poetic frenzy hurries him into the warlike Anapæst. Thus, after reciting the following grave Iambic couplet,

"Now humbly learns God's purpose to obey,  
Ere life, its hopes and passions pass away,"

we can imagine the striking effect of the transition to the following strain;

"Now trace we the course of proud glory's bright star  
In the tumult of battle — the horrors of war —  
In the neigh of the war-horse — the clangor of arms —  
In the note of the bugle or trumpet's alarms."

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**ART. XIV.—*Retrospections of the Stage.*** By the late **JOHN BERNARD**, Manager of the American Theatres, &c. Boston. Carter & Hendee. 2 vols. 12mo. pp. 235 and 215.

**JOHN BERNARD** was born at Portsmouth (England) in 1756, "went on the stage in 1774, and quitted it in 1820," and was connected during the last half of the forty-six years of his public career with the American theatres. He early became delighted with theatrical entertainments; but the first inclination which he felt to take a personal share in them as an actor, was occasioned by the school exhibitions in which he performed a part on "the eve of the holidays, when the learned and indulgent domine, Mr. Low, used invariably to fall into that amiable failing so prevalent among pedagogues, of getting up a play." The theatrical mania with which he was seized reached an alarming height at the age of sixteen, and proved too violent to yield to the tender remonstrances of a serious mother, or to the apprehensions of a sterner interference on the part of his father, in the intervals of a sea-faring life. But so it was, that before he had a full right to be his own master, both parents consented to his wishes, considering their consent as a choice of evils.

During the period of his connexion with the English theatres, being nearly one-fourth of a century, he saw and heard a great deal which is worth relating, and a great deal which might as well not be told. There is scarcely any description of persons which he did not meet with first or last, either in London, where it was said long ago, that "let a man's character, sentiments, or complexion be what they will, he can find company to match them," or at Bath, the resort of fashion and folly and crime, or in other considerable places where he had a temporary residence, or which he visited in his provincial campaigns. Accordingly we are introduced to a very motley company ; (to say nothing of the vilest gradations) to retainers at inns, strolling-players, and players of all sorts ; to musicians, scribblers, literati, and philosophers ; to princes, statesmen, lords, and commoners, besides citizens of the world. He passed much time year after year with many of these in the overflowings of wit and conviviality, at clubs and private entertainments, maintaining withal a good degree of self-respect, neither ashamed of his craft and humbler companions, nor boasting of his fellowship with men in higher stations.

In such intercourse, and so long continued, he found opportunities to gather stories and anecdotes of various qualities and kinds, benevolent and heroic, or humorous, silly, ludicrous, mischievous, vexatious, and profane,—ghost stories not excepted. His narratives of indelicate and licentious adventures are told frequently with an appearance of regard merely to historical fidelity, without censure or expressions of disgust ; and his descriptions of vicious and dissolute characters have sometimes more of lightness than severity. Here and there we find snatches of good philosophical speculation on the mimetic art, of which we could wish there was more ; and many of his descriptions of persons and personal habits and qualities are very well drawn and very entertaining. We select one of these from a number most to our taste, relating to the celebrated Dr. Herschel. Bernard, being a very young man, was at Bath, and awkwardly situated for want of skill in performing the musical parts assigned to him in the opera. Herschel, perceiving this, offered to give him private instruction upon terms to be arranged at a future time.

" This offer I gratefully accepted, and attended him twice a week, at his own lodgings, which then resembled an astronomer's much more than a musician's, being heaped up with globes, maps, telescopes, reflectors, &c., under which his piano was hid, and the violoncello, like a discarded favorite, skulked away in one corner.

" This was not the only evidence of Mr. Herschel's astrological propensities, nor were they a public secret; he had taken observations, and communicated with philosophical societies; the consequence of which was, that he had been quizzed by the fiddlers, and called by the charitably disposed an eccentric. To his friends and to myself he alluded to these studies without embarrassment, and would modestly remark, that ' all men had their failings, and this was his.' When I came to him of an evening, and caught him thus employed, he would tell me with a laugh, to take care how I stepped over his ' new world,' and didn't run foul of his ' celestial system'; and when I helped him to put his machinery aside, he had a standing joke in calling me his ' Atlas,' because I once carried the globe on my shoulders. When the removal was made, the fiddle was taken down, or the harpsicord opened, without farther comment. . . . .

" Notwithstanding I was so familiar with his pursuits, one evening he gave me a surprise. The opera of ' Lionel and Clariissa' was announced, in which I was given the part of Lord Jessamy. His Lordship having a difficult song, I went as usual to my clever friend to rehearse it. It was cold and clear weather, but the sky that night was rather cloudy, and the moon peeped out only now and then from her veil. Herschel had a fire in his back-apartment, and placed the music-stand near its window, which I could not account for. He then procured his violin, and commenced the song, playing over the air twice or thrice to familiarize me with its general idea; and then leading me note by note to its thorough acquaintance. We got through about five bars pretty well, till of a sudden the sky began to clear up, and his eye was unavoidably attracted by the celestial bodies coming out, as it were, one by one from their hiding-places: my eye, however, was fixed on the book: and when he exclaimed, ' Beautiful! beautiful!' squinting up at the stars, I thought he alluded to the music. At length the whole host threw aside their drapery, and stood forth in native loveliness: — the effect was sudden and subduing, — ' Beautiful, beautiful,' shouted Herschel, ' there he is at last!' dropping the fiddle, snatching a telescope, throwing up the window, and (though it was a night in January) beginning to survey an absentee planet, which he had been long looking for. . . . .

"Herschel, when in company, owing to the above causes, was exceedingly abstracted, and would frequently listen to a long story without comprehending a word of it. This was very mortifying to the person who had been endeavouring to entertain him; and on subsequent occasions, when this absence was perceived, it grew to a common remark with many, — 'He's in the clouds again, he's star-gazing!' . . . .

"Let me conclude these notices, as I would always wish to do when I cannot praise the talents, with a record to the virtues of this individual. The point of terms, though I repeatedly pressed him to settle it, he invariably deferred, saying, he had not time then to talk about 'terms,' he had only time to give me a 'lesson.' At the end of the season, having regularly received my two lessons a-week, I waited on him to know what remuneration I should make; when he refused to receive a shilling, saying, 'He had undertaken to teach me, because he thought I could not afford to pay any one.'

"Ten years after this, I met the Doctor in London, where he was established as an astronomer, and we renewed and continued our acquaintance." pp. 37-40.

In the author's own walk, we might, if we could spare room, select his account of the veteran Macklin, as particularly interesting.

These volumes will be welcomed, no doubt, by all patrons of theatricals and play-going people. They bring down the author's "Retrospections of the Stage" only to the time of his embarking for this country, the first volume having closed with the close of his theatrical engagements in Ireland. The author says, in his concluding address to the reader, "I consider the two volumes now submitted, as defining periods which form two acts in the drama of my life; and that if you are at all desirous the curtain should go up a third time, you need but to 'make a noise,' and the wish will be complied with."

We are not told by the Editor, the author's son, who abridged and prepared these volumes for the press, whether a third volume is ready for the press when it shall be called for by the public.

**ART. XV.—*A Memoir of Miss Hannah Adams.* Written by HERSELF. With Additional Notices, by a FRIEND. Boston. Gray & Bowen. 1832. 12mo. pp. 110.**

AN objection has been made to the writing of Memoirs of one's self for different reasons ; but in some respects autobiography is both more pleasing and more instructive than any other biography. It has more freshness and bears the very impress of the mind and character of the individual, instead of a description or analysis of them. However deficient one may be in self-knowledge, yet there are many things which he knows about himself better than any body else can know them ; and if it be not so, he will unconsciously disclose qualities which others will perceive and appreciate. If he be vain, he will strive to no purpose to make his reader believe that he was wont to shrink from notoriety ; his ruling passion will break through all disguise, honestly or artfully assumed ; and though he may sometimes provoke, he will be pretty sure to amuse his readers. If he be modest, he will be neither prolix nor discursive, probably less entertaining than the vain, not given to prattle and gossip, but on the whole more attractive.

If ever man or woman deserved to be classed among modest persons or authors, Hannah Adams must be classed there. But we do not single out this virtue of modesty, marked as it is, for particular exemplification. It will appear throughout, in the brief remarks we shall make upon her life and character.

Miss Adams was in several respects a very remarkable woman. In her physical constitution she was feeble and nervous ; her social tendencies were rebuked by timidity ; her wishes to conform to the customs of external politeness (which she prized at their full value) were frustrated by an awkwardness of which she was painfully conscious ; and to sum up all in a word, in regard to social intercourse, she felt an abiding uneasiness in consequence of a full conviction that in every thing external she was not like other people. Her education, except the humblest elementary instruction at school, was a matter of mere accident and caprice. When she had reached the tenth year of her age, she was deprived of her mother, and very soon after of an aunt, "who was

attached to her with almost maternal fondness ; " and thus her sister, a little older than herself, became her principal friend and adviser. Her father had enjoyed the benefit of a good school education according to the notions then prevailing, and had learned a little Latin and Greek ; but he was a man of no thrift, and no skill in applying his knowledge to advantage.\* Still her curiosity and almost innate love of knowledge supplied in a good degree the want of instruction. Her " first idea of Heaven was, of a place where we should find our thirst for knowledge fully gratified." In early life her reading consisted of novels of which she was " passionately fond," and of poetry, of which she was an " enthusiastic admirer " ; while she " did not neglect the study of history and biography." The ideal world which was pictured in her imagination from reading poetry and fictitious writings without discrimination and without guidance, was to her an occasion of regret and unhappiness in after life ; and to this she ascribed some of the " errors of her understanding." Her curiosity, however, reached to more substantial things, and, with such aid and instruction as she could procure, she obtained considerable knowledge of Latin and Greek ; and in her turn she gave instruction in the same to three young gentlemen, one of whom pursued his studies with her till he entered the University at Cambridge.

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\* His baptismal name we do not remember, if we ever knew it; but he was such a greedy devourer of books, that he was more familiarly known by a characteristic praenomen substituted for the real one ; and thus he was generally called Book Adams. He was altogether a curiosity, a locomotive library. He was much better than an Index ; for he could not only tell one where to find any fact in the multitude of voyages, travels, histories, and books of antiquities which he had read, but could recite for hours and days their various details. With the digesting of these materials he had nothing to do ; they were stored merely as goods valuable for their own sake, or to be dealt out for the gratuitous use of those who had the wish or the patience to receive them. His lean image on his lean walking or ambling pony, with a volume open before his eyes, and with his saddle-bags stuffed with his daughter's books to be distributed or vended, is still fresh in our recollection. It was some thirty years ago we remember, in the library of Harvard College, which he frequently visited, and which he never entered without rapture similar to that which affects some persons when presented to a Pope, an Emperor, or king, he lifted up both hands and exclaimed with hearty simplicity, " I'd rather be Librarian of Harvard College than Emperor of all the Russias ! "

Concerning Miss Adams's history and calamities as an author we have no room for remark. The "View of Religions," her first work, which is also a standard work, was suggested by accident, and pursued to a considerable extent without any intention of publishing it. It was poverty and not ambition that led the author to put it to the press. Her other principal works, "The History of New England," and "The History of the Jews," are both creditable performances, and occasioned the author much wearisome research; for she was conscientious in her literary undertakings, and, however fond she was of fiction, her love of truth was stronger.

It seems a little remarkable that Miss Adams, whose favorite reading was poetical, fictitious, and imaginative, should fix her mind upon such subjects as those to which she devoted the best part of her life. But the explanation is found in her modesty. She had made a low estimate of her abilities, except in her power of reading rapidly and understandingly, of acquiring knowledge, and of remembering her acquisitions; of these things she could not be ignorant, and did not affect to be. She always spoke of herself as a mere compiler, and "it was her firm persuasion that she never wrote any thing original." "It is other people's thoughts," said she, "that I put into my own language." But, like other people, she had abundance of thoughts which came she knew not how or whence; and in regard to her readiness, simplicity, and neatness in expressing them, she excelled. Besides what may be gathered from her published works, there are fragments of Miss Adams's compositions remaining, which furnish proof that as a moral, thinking, intellectual writer, she might have reached no inconsiderable eminence. She could indite her sentiments and emotions in verse with great simplicity and feeling, and moralize with great clearness and discrimination in prose. We cannot forbear to quote one example of this, which is furnished by the judicious "Friend" who has given the "Additional Notices" to the "Memoir."

"One of her young friends put to her this interrogative. 'Ought mankind to be respected for their personal worth alone, abstracted from all accidental causes?'

"To this question Miss Adams replied.

"'Mankind ought primarily to be respected for their personal worth; yet if accidental causes make that worth appear more conspicuous, it may increase our esteem, which still is founded

on personal worth in proportion as it appears. The more we see of virtue, the more it ought to attract our love and admiration. Virtue becomes visible only by its effects. The diamond we value for its intrinsic worth. But when it is polished and set, its essential beauty appears more resplendent. So external accomplishments, and accidental causes, set forth the original beauty of virtue, and serve to heighten its charms. There are particular circumstances in which every virtue will shine with peculiar lustre. For instance, humility has intrinsic excellence. But it appears most attractive in those who are placed in affluent circumstances, and are surrounded by pomp and splendor. Fortitude, also, is an excellent quality of the mind. But suffering and adversity must bring it forth. Persons who have performed eminent services for their country are worthy of greater honor, than those who have remained in private life with equal worth. I conclude, therefore, that mankind ought to be esteemed for their personal worth, as it is rendered conspicuous by accidental causes." pp. 61 - 63.

The "Memoir" is brief. It was written towards the close of the author's life at the request of a friend, and evidently with a determination to say as little of herself, as a compliance with the request would justify. It is throughout unpretending in respect to her personal deserts, and full of gratitude for all the kindnesses which she had received from others. The "Additional Notices" are not at variance with the "Memoir." They make us acquainted with some things which we did not learn from Miss Adams's own telling; but there is no exaggeration in the narrative or in the delineations of traits of character. Altogether it is a very useful book, as well as an engaging one, and such a one as is due to the memory of so distinguished a female; and if we did not think it would be in the hands of a great portion of our readers before this number of our Journal will reach them, we should give them fuller accounts and specimens of its contents.

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ART. XVI.—*M. Tullii Ciceronis ad Quintum Fratrem Dialogi Tres de Oratore, cum Excerptis et Notis Variorum.* Novi-Portū, sumtibus H. Howe. 1832. 12mo. pp. 260.

THIS new edition of an important work of Cicero made its appearance a few weeks ago. From the place of publica-

tion, the signature of the Preface, and the character of the edition itself, we presume it is no breach of decorum to ascribe it to a gentleman who is at the head of one of the branches of the classical department in Yale College, and deservedly respected on account of his learning and zeal, advantageously displayed in the defence of classical studies which proceeded a few years ago from that venerable institution.

The editor mentions, in his short Preface, that he has followed the text of Ernesti; availing himself, however, of some corrections in the punctuation of Dr. Carey's edition.

Many Latin authors have suffered a corruption of their text, and this from very different causes. Some are discovered so late, and the manuscripts of course are in so imperfect a state of preservation, that it is very doubtful whether their text will ever be completely restored. We mention, for the sake of illustration, the treatise of Cicero *de Republicâ* found by Angelo Mai in Rome, and the work of the Roman lawyer, Gajus, discovered by Niebuhr in Verona. Other writers were known, and copies and editions of their works multiplied, so early, when the standard of critical accuracy was much lower than now, that the errors of the first copyists and editors were carelessly handed down from copy to copy and from edition to edition, and have at last become so firmly planted that many of them will probably never be eradicated.

Cicero is one of those who have suffered from the latter cause. In addition to this, the boldness of some scholars in substituting unhesitatingly their conjectures for the apparently unintelligible readings of the codices has done great injury to this author as well as others. Ernesti holds a high rank among the critics who have endeavoured to restore the text of Cicero to its original purity; he has certainly done much, but we cannot and ought not to conceal that much is still to be done. The industry, learning, and good luck of such men as Mai and Orelli, will, we confidently hope, contribute much towards furnishing at some time a correct text of Cicero.

The Notes, some of which, owing to a change in the views of the publishers, are in Latin, and some in English, are few in number and short, but judiciously selected, and clearly expressed. The typographical appearance of the book is good, and the print, as far as we have been able to ascertain, correct.

**ART. XVII.—*Lectures on Systematic Theology and Pulpit Eloquence*, by the late GEORGE CAMPBELL, D. D., &c. To which are added *Dialogues on Eloquence*, by M. DE FÉNÉLON, Archbishop of Cambray. Edited by HENRY J. RIPLEY, Professor of Biblical Literature and Pastoral Duties in the Newton Theological Institution. Boston. Lincoln & Edmands. 1832. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 206 and 102.**

THESE Lectures of Dr. Campbell are well known to most of our clergymen and to those recently educated for the ministry ; and if they were not so, the character of the author, as one of the most philosophical critics and learned theologians of modern times, would be sufficient to recommend them to gentlemen of that profession for which they are designed. Besides, the truly Christian spirit which pervades all Campbell's theological writings ought to procure for them universal favor, and the gratitude of all who feel that they have a common interest in the prevalence of Christian knowledge, truth, and charity. If the rules, illustrations, and arguments in his work before us pertaining to the study of the Scriptures, and of theological controversy, and to the composition and delivery of sermons were regarded as they should be by preachers of all sects, bigots and heated polemics would be known only in the history of the past, and preaching would attain its legitimate purpose.

Fenelon's " Dialogues on Eloquence " are probably less known to the clergy and theological students of this country, than the work of Campbell to which they are here annexed. Every thing proceeding from that great and good man is entitled to respect ;

" His own example sanctioned all his laws."

We are not particularly pleased with the form in which he imparted his instructions on Eloquence, though to some minds it may be more attractive than to ours. Dialogue, if at all natural, leads to a discursive manner of treating a subject, and to digressions, which if they relieve the mind from the pain of continued attention, are too apt to interrupt the current of thought, to impair the didactic character of a work, and to occasion some confusion to the reader. And

so it is, we think, with Fenelon's "Dialogues," to such an extent that we do not receive an adequate compensation for these disadvantages in the vivacity of manner or in the opportunity which is skilfully seized here and there of bringing the Socratic argumentation into successful exercise. The "Dialogues" are full of substantial learning without any of its pedantic forms, and contain much that is valuable to all public speakers, besides what more particularly applies to the eloquence of the pulpit. The translation adopted by Professor Ripley is that of William Stevenson, Rector of Morningthorp, in Norfolk, "illustrated with notes and quotations."

Professor Ripley informs us in his judicious and well-written Preface, that in this publication of Campbell's Lectures he has omitted the "Introductory Discourses" in the work on "Systematic Theology," with the exception of the first, those which are omitted being of a local character. Some slight omissions, for similar reasons are made in other parts of the "Lectures," and the sentences which occur in the Latin language are translated.

The copious Latin Notes introduced by Fenelon from those great masters of the rhetorical art among the Romans, Cicero and Quintilian, are retained by the editor, and not translated. This is right, and his reasons are satisfactory. But we owe it to the cause of good learning to say, that these Notes, which contain some of the choicest precepts, are very inaccurately printed. In a very cursory reading, we have marked more than a score of palpable errors. We mention this without the least disrespect to the editor, whose learning and regard for learning is well known. But in all such cases we shall do what in us lies to promote a feeling of responsibility on this subject, which after all must rest mainly upon editors.

The value of the book which we have thus noticed, besides the intrinsic worth of its contents, consists in the economical form in which it appears. It contains a great deal of matter in a neat volume, of convenient size.

**ART. XVIII.—*Contemplations of the Saviour; a Series of Extracts from the Gospel History, with Reflections, and Original and Selected Hymns.* By S. GREENLEAF BULFINCH. Boston. Carter & Hendee. 1832. 12mo. pp. 155.**

THIS is a very good addition to the class of books intended for aids to family and private devotion. The selections from the Gospel are so chosen and arranged as to give a connected history. They are divided into eight Parts or periods, and subdivided into fifty Sections or smaller portions. Each section is followed by "Reflections," and by an original or selected "Hymn." The "Reflections" are simple and practical, not above the reach of common capacities, nor below the notice of the greatest; serving to recall attention to some more striking circumstance in the Scripture passages, or to bring them home to the heart and conscience; some of them being a kind of abridged homilies or familiar discourses. The Hymns are well adapted to the subjects which precede them, and will be regarded as a valuable part of the work.

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**ART. XIX.—*A Third Book for Reading and Spelling, with Simple Rules and Instructions for avoiding common Errors.* By SAMUEL WORCESTER, Author of a "Primer," a "Second Book for Reading and Spelling," &c. Boston. Carter & Hendee. 1832. 12mo. pp. 246.**

MR. WORCESTER's allusion, in the title-page to his "Primer" and "Second Book," and particularly the mention made, in the Preface, of imitations of his works by others, amounting we should suppose to larceny, led us to look into these little books. In regard to his allegations, though they come fairly under our tribunal, we can pronounce no judgment in the case, not having examined into it. But we may pronounce a hypothetical judgment; viz. if any person be guilty in the manner set forth, he must be kith and kin to pickpockets. Yet to say nothing more about the morality of the act, we cannot help remarking that if any one has so offended, he has purloined what is of no inconsiderable value.

Mr. Worcester's "Third Book" consists of well-selected pieces, entertaining and instructive. Before each lesson is placed some useful rule in regard to the manner of reading it, and the lesson is followed by a notice of the more common errors in the pronunciation of particular words which occur in the same. The object appears to have been to introduce such pieces as children from ten to twelve years of age can understand, and to accompany them with such directions that they can be read naturally, as if they were understood; and the author seems to us to have well accomplished this object.

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ART. XX.—*Sequel to the Spelling Book.* By S. T. WORCESTER. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins. 1831. 12mo. pp. 128.

THIS book differs from the common spelling-books, in which there is a jumble of words of all kinds collected together without any sort of classification, except what regards the number of syllables in their successive columns. The words are here classed according to grammatical principles, with syllabic divisions, and a notation of vowels and accents, sufficient for a correct pronunciation. Foreign words which we have adopted, and technical words, are not intermixed with those in common use, but follow them, in the latter part of the book. All the words are accompanied by simple definitions. Mr. Worcester's plan, thus differing from those books intended for a similar purpose, which we have met with, makes the "Sequel" a useful addition to the list of school-books.

So far as we have attended to the subject, we have been led to think with Mr. Worcester, that, in the spelling-books in common use, "the understanding is left almost wholly unexercised. Scholars thus form habits of committing their lessons to memory with very little reflection, the injurious influence of which is afterwards felt in higher but not more important elementary studies."

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NOTE TO THE REVIEW OF BRYANT'S POEMS IN NO. IV.—

After the last number of our Journal was printed, and before it was published, we read an article in the AMERICAN QUARTERLY REVIEW, touching the character of "Bryant's Poems," which stands unrivalled and alone in the whole annals of criticism. The only way in which we can account for this anomalous and unexampled production, is, that the reviewers had in reserve something which they thought very fine about the poets of New England, founded on the worthless writings of its humblest bards, and placed the title of Mr. Bryant's book at the beginning, and a few remarks upon it towards the close (which they were exceedingly puzzled to know how to adapt to the tenor of their elaborate and cherished performance), and thus they thought to give to the whole an air of greater consequence. This is the most charitable hypothesis, though we will not urge it in order to get to the bottom of a mystery, which perhaps is too deep for us to fathom.

The article of which we speak is entitled "American Lake Poetry"; and the poems of Willis and Bryant are the works purporting to be reviewed. The "American Lake Poetry" is described to be the degenerate offspring of the "Lake Poetry" of England; which last, according to the summary description of the reviewers,— "dispenses with all arrangement of subject, all natural adaptation of thought, all distinctness of expression, and regularity of versification." But *our* poets, "the Lake, or, to Americanize the term, the New-England school," it seems, are a degenerate issue; they ape "the very worst peculiarities" of their sires. "They have in consequence, filled their compositions with epithets without meaning, and sentiment without pathos. They are careless without ease, and laborious without showing polish. Their decorations are tawdry, and impart no elegance to their diction. Their versification is in general sluggish, and often intolerably rugged." After a little more of this easy, graceful strain of antithesis, and beautiful specimen of English idiom, the Reviewers, with great agony, give up to a hopeless condition, Willis and Bryant, and any others who "in this lowest deep" may reach "a lower deep"; and thus sagely mark out their own course: "We, at present, attempt the ungracious task of showing where those [Willis and Bryant], whose works we

### *Note to the Review of Bryant's Poems.*

have made the subject of this article, have gone astray, not so much with the view of bringing them into the right path—which we deem would be vain labor—as for the purpose of preventing others from following them. We will [shall] hold up their works as beacons by which future pilgrims, on the path to poetical fame, may be warned to avoid the snares into which they have fallen, too deeply, we fear, ever to rise again, and become disentangled from their error."

Such then are the "Lake School" of England, as the archetype, and the "New-England School," the copy, disgracing even its miserable origin. Here Bryant has his bad eminence. These are the *schools* which have been examined by the *Reviewers* with such liberality and thorough penetration,—in which they have found nothing to approve. They have written idler, dunce, and blockhead, against the names of masters and pupils, threatened to destroy their fabrics, and set up another school, or at any rate to "hold up their works as *beacons*," to be kindled, it should seem, into flame by those who hold them up thus generously, albeit they should burn their own fingers. "The *beacon* of the wise," is "modest doubt."

We have already in the preceding number of this Journal given a full expression of our opinion respecting Mr. Bryant's poems, and we shall not be so wanting in respect towards him, or to ourselves, or to the good city of Philadelphia, or to the public, as to make a studied reply to the criticism, if it may be so called, which we have now exposed to view, so far as we could do it in a very condensed form. Is this critical effort the result of fanaticism, or spleen, or of the inaptitude of those whom the "gods have not made poetical," for the task which they undertook? It has not heat enough perhaps for fanaticism, nor acrimony enough for spleen unmixed, nor obtuseness enough for total depravity of the poetic sense; and therefore it may be the result of these elements mingled and combined.

The *Reviewers* have been bountiful in their selections from Willis, but they strangely forgot that they had promised to present some passages of Bryant before their readers, in order to show that he has none of the qualities of a good poet, of one who "commands attention, gains the favor of his readers, and insures for himself an honorable fame." When the fit occasion offers, they change their minds. And

*Note to the Review of Bryant's Poems.*

why do they make no extracts from Bryant's volume? "For the sole reason," as they say, "that it contains but little that we can severely condemn, and less, perhaps, that we can warmly praise." It is then that middling kind of poetry miscalled, which neither gods nor men, least of all, these reviewers, can tolerate. Thus it is to the end of the chapter, saving that they select several lines, out of which they mark a few words in which the poet compresses three syllables into two, for which words they kindly provide substitutes and emendations. Now, if instead of saying, You are dull, indifferent, prosaic, common-place, verbose, Mr. Bryant,—they had said, We do not feel with you, we cannot go along with you, we do not understand you, Mr. Bryant;—we should know how to account for their embarrassment, and they would have been saved from much painful effort, from inconsistency, and a deal of rambling discourse.

There is another thing which occasioned great embarrassment to the reviewers: they had ascertained in some way, beyond our ability to explain,—whether by poetical or some other kind of inspiration, or by oracles or prophecies of former times, they can best affirm,—but so it was, that they had learned to their own satisfaction the geographical boundaries of poetical genius, and that it had no dwelling place in this Western world, east of the Hudson. This fact, as we might well imagine, they repose and enlarge upon with a good deal of complacency, such as flows from exclusive knowledge, or knowledge possessed in common only by a few. Hence it is readily perceived how they could find no poetic inspiration in Bryant, though he was born and bred in a region of mountains and valleys, cultivated and wild, picturesque and sublime, which, if the Hudson had not been Nature's eastern boundary of poetic genius in this hemisphere, might have operated on a cultivated mind, have raised it from the sensible to the moral, from the love of natural beauty and sublimity, to refinement and sublimity of thought,—the true inspiration of nature's God.

The fact being thus well ascertained and clearly announced that there are no poets east of the Hudson, we conclude that it is meant to be implied that there are such personages west and south of that river of new fame and properties. On this subject we shall probably be enlightened hereafter.

## LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

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*The Domestic Chemist; comprising Instructions for the Detection of Adulteration in Numerous Articles employed in Domestic Economy, Medicine, and the Arts. To which are subjoined, the Art of Detecting Poisons in Food and Organic Mixtures; and a Popular Introduction to the Principles of Chemical Analysis. Illustrated by Engravings on Wood.\* 18mo. pp. 340. London. 1831.*

We have heard little of late of "the march of intellect," and in none of the erudite treatises or lectures that we have read or heard, have we been advised of *all* the great improvements and aids to the attainment of an elevated rank among philosophers which are now within reach. Those who have attained this elevation are, we fear, not so liberal as they should be in conformity with the "spirit of the age." It may be owing, however, to the velocity which has been acquired. Some years ago the progressive steps could be counted; but now, unless a man become a natural philosopher, an astronomer, or a chemist, by double-quick-time, equalled only by the progression of a Liverpool locomotive, he is a dolt and a blunderhead. A science which, at the close of the eighteenth century, was thought to require for its attainment the drudgery of days and nights of application, is to be mastered in an hour, in a "Why and Because," in a "Scientific Tract," or in a Lyceum lecture.

We read in some of our musty folios of the smell of the lamp; this was prior to the introduction of gas lights; these have already rendered stars unnecessary to some modern astronomers. The time seems near when the names of Newton and Laplace will be quoted to mark the snail pace of science, and the hebetude of intellect, which once required the aid of a long tube, then called a telescope, where-with to look at the moon!

The royal road to learning seems at length to have been discovered, and the labor-saving machinery of science to have been brought to the utmost perfection. The old lady has been made to doff her antiquated and repulsive garb, and to invest herself with all the attractions of a fashionable beauty. Rattles and go-carts, dolls and skip-jacks, are banished from the nursery and have become an essential part of the apparatus of philosophy. It is not to be supposed that these influences

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\* Our reasons for noticing this publication more at length than the plan of this Journal contemplates, will appear in the course of our remarks.

and improvements are to be limited in their effects to science. The mastery of all the sciences, about the age of six, will render new objects necessary to engage the mind, and literature will then come in for its share of attention. Ripe scholars will begin to be turned out by machinery; schools, colleges, and libraries will not be wanted, and the child's "first book" will be Shakspeare or Milton. Homer and Virgil will be the standard nursery authors, and learned lecturers will expound the more erudite tomes of "Mother Goose" and "Goody Two-Shoes," in the original Greek to assembled crowds.

The condensation of the gases has not yet been so applied as to produce any important practical results in the arts, but advantage has been taken of the discovery of Mr. Faraday, in the application of the principle to science. Of an experiment of this kind we have an instance in the "Domestic Chemist." It is the second volume of a series of works now publishing in London under the title of the "Polytechnic Library." The design of this publication, the "whys and because" are freely set forth in the prospectus. The series is to consist of "highly instructive works," which the public are to be "tempted to *buy*, because they will be *cheap*, — be induced to *read*, because they will be *briefer*, — be competent to *understand*, because they will be *clearly written*, — and be able to *profit by*, because they will be works of *practical utility*." The "Domestic Chemist" is the only specimen of these "highly instructive works" we have seen; but the gallantry of the publishers far exceeds that of any of the "Library" makers of this library-making age, for there is one volume "nearly ready for publication," in which all the arcana of the toilet are to be revealed, — powders, pomatums, and essences, extracts and elixirs, odoriferous waters and toilette soaps, vinegars, cosmetics and dyes for the hair, are all to be described in the most philosophical manner according to chemical principles "investigated" — not by Sir Humphrey Davy, but by philosophers of the more modern "why and because" school, — to wit, "the Parisian perfumers."

Nor are our merchants and tradesmen to be forgotten; one volume is to comprise the "art of book-keeping, particularly adapted for those who have never studied the principles of book-keeping." Another will no doubt teach the higher mathematics without the knowledge of arithmetic, logarithms, or algebra.

The "Domestic Chemist" is manufactured with imperfect and partial extracts from Dr Christison's valuable "Treatise on Poisons," and the elaborate work of Rose on "Analysis," with a few plagiarisms from Mr. Faraday's "Manipulation." There is occasionally a reference to these works; but page after page is introduced without any acknowledgment. It is a book which any one might have made who had never seen a retort or a crucible.

The book was not wanted; to the chemist who can fill up the meagre sketches of processes, and supply from his own resources the deficiencies, it may sometimes be convenient, but to the greater number of readers it will be useless. To some it may not prove entirely harmless; it may fill the timid with imaginary fears, and lead to the wish that they had been born to eat of the chameleon's dish. The old stories of poisoned cheese, sanded sugar, medicated beer, bread of

bone-ashes and pipe-clay stare us in the face at almost every page; and death is no longer imprisoned in the porridge-pot, but pops his head from the pudding-bag, and bounces upon us from the bottom of a champaigne bottle.

The "Domestic Chemist" professes to be "a barricade against the cupidity of fraudulent tradesmen, and to put it in every man's power to ensure his health and wealth against the ravages of adulteration and disease." The stolen materials with which this "barricade" has been built up, have been chipped and hammered and made to fit tolerably well, but the cement is of a loose texture and will do no credit to the engineer. As a specimen; "The fulminations of the legislature are here of small avail," viz. in preventing the adulteration of beer, "for acts of parliament have but little power in comparison with chemical tests. It is to the operations of the laboratory, and not to the proceedings of St. Stephen's Chapel, that the public must look for protection against the beer-doctors."

We have found mention made of but one manufactory, which we are led to infer produces pure articles, and even this our author would have brought up to the spirit of the age; "I wish," says he, "that it were possible to adulterate the wisdom of Parliament with a little common sense or elementary knowledge." He professes to have tested several times "to find whether the wisdom of Parliament" did contain any common sense, "but was never able to detect it."

We shall, doubtless, soon see a proposal to republish this series of "highly instructive works" in this country; let our life-insurance companies, our doctors and druggists, look to it in season or prepare to shut up shop, as every man, woman, and child, at something less than one dollar, will be able to "ensure health and wealth, and be protected in person and property from the machinations of demons" by purchasing the "Domestic Chemist"—for thus promises the author.

Our chemist is hard upon the ruddy cooks and fair housewives of England, and upon their shoulders would lay the burden of being, in no small degree, the promoters of intemperance in the community. While he gives them all due honor for their attention to "roast beef and plum puddings, to cow heels and calves' heads," in noticing a specific against the vice we have named he most ungallantly continues, "In the preparation of coffee they show themselves as if they were newly caught savages set to perform the functions of cooking animals for the first time. I think," he continues, "it is much to be regretted that the art of making good coffee is not more generally valued and practised among us. If the stupid ringleaders of the useless temperance societies, would do something to put people into the way of getting and drinking good coffee, instead of preaching long sermons to them about the benefits derivable from sipping wine, their labors would have a clear and rational object. I will tell my countrywomen what they should do to keep their husbands from the grog-shop; they should teach themselves to make good coffee. A man would often take *that* at home, rather than more potent liquors abroad. I say *good* coffee, and mean thereby something different from a sort of wash fit only to be given to hogs to swallow, but which is nevertheless served up as a delicate beverage by many an English [and American] house-

wife to her unfortunate family. Good and strong coffee, made from berries which have been roasted and ground the same day, is an exceedingly exhilarating liquor, while poor, weak, slopped coffee does nothing but breed the blue-devils. A man would be a fool to resign his gin-and-water for this stuff; and the women are thoroughly foolish to expect them to do so. Let the latter begin by holding out to their husbands some temptation to stay at home to drink." — pp. 141, 142.

The third part of this volume comprises the art of chemical analysis in about sixty pages. This is the best part of the book, but is nevertheless got up in the usual superficial style of "popular" performances. It is made up of unacknowledged extracts chiefly from the "Chemical Manipulation of Mr. Faraday. We do not recollect, however, that the able successor of Davy and Brande, recommends the use of an "edulcorator" formed of a bottle having its mouth closed by a cork through which a tube is passed, the liquid in which is to be expelled upon the precipitate to be washed, by blowing into the tube, the bottle being inverted. There is no doubt of the correctness of the remark, that the contents "will be expelled with considerable force," to which should have been added,— into the face and eyes of the operator.

The outlines of processes and the directions to beginners, so far as they go, are well enough, but they are too imperfect to be of much value.

#### HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

SINCE the first of September, 1831, there have been added to the Library of Harvard College 1225 volumes, and 212 pamphlets or tracts, not including periodical publications. The above additions consist of 798 independent works. During this period there have been presented 429 volumes, and 147 pamphlets.

The following list includes a few of the more important works.

Armenian Works — 16 volumes, printed at Venice. Among these is a version of Milton's *Paradise Lost*.

Champollion (*le jeune*). *Panthéon Égyptien*. 4to. 15 livraisons, with colored plates.

Clair et Clapier. *Le Barreau Français*. 16 vols. 8vo.

*Encyclopædia Metropolitana*. 12 vols. 4to.

Herder's *Sammliche Werke*; zur Religion, Philosophie, und Literatur. 45 vols. 8vo.

Humboldt and Bonpland. *Work on the Equinoctial Regions of America*; with splendid Plates. Folio and quarto.

Krusenstern. *Voyage autour du Monde*. 2 vols. 8vo. With an Atlas. folio. Paris. 1821.

Nepos. *Opera*. Ed. Mussius. 1 vol. fol. Mediolani. 1807.

Sallustius. *Opera*. Ed. Mussius. 2 vols. fol. Mediolani. 1813.

Skinner. *Etymologicum Ling. Ang.* fol. 1671.

Thwaite. *Heptateuchus, Liber Job, et Evangelium Nicodemi, in Anglo-Sax.*; et *Historia Judith Fragmentum, in Dano-Sax.* 8vo. 1698.

## LIST OF NEW PUBLICATIONS,

FOR APRIL, 1832.

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### *Carey & Lea, Philadelphia.*

- A Historical Inquiry into the Production and Consumption of the Precious Metals. By William Jacobs, Esq. 8vo.  
A Geological Manual. By Henry F. De La Beche. 8vo.  
Life of Belisarius. By Lord Mahon. 12mo.  
The Life of Napoleon Bonaparte. By M. de Bourrienne, his Private Secretary. 8vo.  
Surgical Memoirs of the Campaigns of Russia, Germany, and France. By Baron D. I. Larey. Translated from the French, by John C. Mercer. 8vo.  
Salmonia, or Days of Fly-Fishing. By an Angler. 12mo.  
A Preliminary Dissertation of the Mechanism of the Heavens. By Mrs. Somerville. 18mo.  
Treatise on the Silk Manufacture. 12mo.  
The Select Works of Henry Fielding. 2 vols. 8vo.  
Encyclopædia Americana. Vol. 9.

### *Carey & Hart, Philadelphia.*

- Catechism of Facts respecting Cholera. By A. B. Granville. 18mo.  
Reflections of Every Day of the Week, with Occasional Thoughts, &c. By Catherine Talbot. 48mo.  
A Whisper to a Newly Married Pair from a Widowed Wife. 18mo.

### *Nicklin & Johnson, Philadelphia.*

- The Office and Duty of Executors, by T. Wentworth. With References, by E. D. Ingraham. 8vo.

### *James Crissy, Philadelphia.*

- The Life of George Washington, Commander in Chief of the American Forces. By John Marshall. Revised and corrected by the Author. 2d edition. 2 vols. 8vo.  
Atlas to Marshall's Life of Washington. 8vo.

### *Latimer & Co., Philadelphia.*

- The Listener. By C. Fry. 2 vols. 12mo.  
A Practical Compendium of Midwifery, being the Course of Lectures on Midwifery and on the Diseases of Women and Infants, delivered at the St. Bartholomew Hospital. By the late Robert Gooch, M. D. 8vo.

*J. & J. Harper, New York.*

Romance of History. Italy. By Charles Macfarlane. 2 vols. 12mo.  
The Letters of the British Spy. By William Wirt, Esq. With a Biographical Sketch of the Author. 10th edition. 12mo.

Lives and Voyages of Early Navigators, with a History of the Buccaneers. 18mo.

The Works of the Rev. Robert Hall, A. M. Vol. 1. 8vo.

*O. Halsted, New York.*

Reports of Cases argued and determined in the Superior Court of the City of New York. By J. P. Hall, Counsellor at Law. 8vo.

*Ebenezer Mason, New York.*

The Writings of the late John M. Mason, D. D. 4 vols. 8vo.

*J. Leavitt, New York.*

Considerations for Young Men. 12mo.

*Collins & Hannay, New York.*

Lempiere's Classical Dictionary. 8vo.

*W. & A. Gould, & Co., Albany.*

Reports of Cases argued and determined in the Supreme Court of Judicature of the State of New York. By John Wendell, Counsellor at Law.

*J. W. Judd, Hartford.*

Connecticut Reports. Vol 8. Part 1 of Vol. 3. Part 1 of New Series, containing the Decisions of 1830. By Thomas Day. 8vo.

*Durrie & Peck, New Haven.*

The Child's Book on the Creation. By the Rev. C. A. Goodrich. 18mo.

*Hilliard, Gray, & Co., Boston.*

Poems. By Miss H. F. Gould. 18mo.

Visitor of the Poor. By Baron Degerando. Translated by a Lady of Boston. 12mo.

*Gray & Bowen, Boston.*

A Memoir of Miss Hannah Adams. Written by Herself. 12mo.

Mr. Greenwood's Sermon at the Installation of the Rev. J. W. Thompson.

*Moore & Sevey, Boston.*

Secrecy, a Poem, pronounced at the Installation of the Boston Encampment of Knights Templars, February 28, 1832. By Thomas Power.

An Address delivered before the Boston Encampment of Knights Templars. By Paul Dean.

*Stimpson & Clapp, Boston.*

Working-Man's Companion. — The Results of Machinery, viz. Cheap Production and Cheap Employment Exhibited, being an Address to the Working-Men of the United Kingdom. 12mo.

The American Library of Useful Knowledge. Vol. 5; containing Universal History. Vol. 2. 12mo.

*Lilly & Wait, Boston.*

Notes on the State of Virginia. By Thomas Jefferson. 12mo.  
Cooper on Dislocation. A new edition from the latest London edition. 8vo.  
Knowledge for the People, or the Plain Why and Because. No. 8, containing  
Zoology. 18mo.

*Crocker & Brewster, Boston.*

The French First Class Book, being a new Selection of Reading Lessons.  
In Four Parts. 12mo.

The Pilgrim's Progress; with a Life of Bunyan, by Robert Southey. 12mo.  
Saturday Evening. By the Author of "The Natural History of Enthusiasm."  
12mo.

*Carter & Hendee, Boston.*

First Book of the Fine and Useful Arts; for the Use of Schools and Lyceums.  
Compiled by M. S. Perry, M. D. 12mo.

Contemplations of the Saviour. By S. G. Bulfinch. 12mo.

A Third Book for Reading and Spelling. By S. Worcester. 12mo.

Santo Sebastiano, or the Young Protector. By the Author of the "Romance  
of the Pyrenees." 12mo.

A Treatise on Shades and Shadows and Linear Perspective. By Charles  
Davies.

Report of the Case of Alleged Contempt and Breach of the Privileges of the  
House of Representatives of Massachusetts; Tried before the House on Com-  
plaint of W. B. Calhoun, Speaker, against D. L. Child. 8vo.

Moll Pitcher, a Poem. 8vo.

*S. H. Parker, Boston.*

Waverley Novels. Revised Edition. Peveril of the Peak. 2 vols. 12mo.

*Lincoln & Edmonds, Boston.*

North American Arithmetic. Part 2d. 12mo.

*Pierce & Parker, Boston.*

Memoirs and Confessions of F. W. Reinhard, S. T. D., 12mo.

*Hilliard & Brown, Cambridge.*

Resolves, Divine, Moral, Political. By Owen Felltham. 12mo.

The Combination against Intemperance Explained and Justified. By Henry  
Ware, jun. 8vo.

Memoirs of John Frederick Oberlin, Pastor of Waldbach, in the Ban De La  
Roche. From the Third London Edition. With an Introduction by the Amer-  
ican Editor. 16mo.